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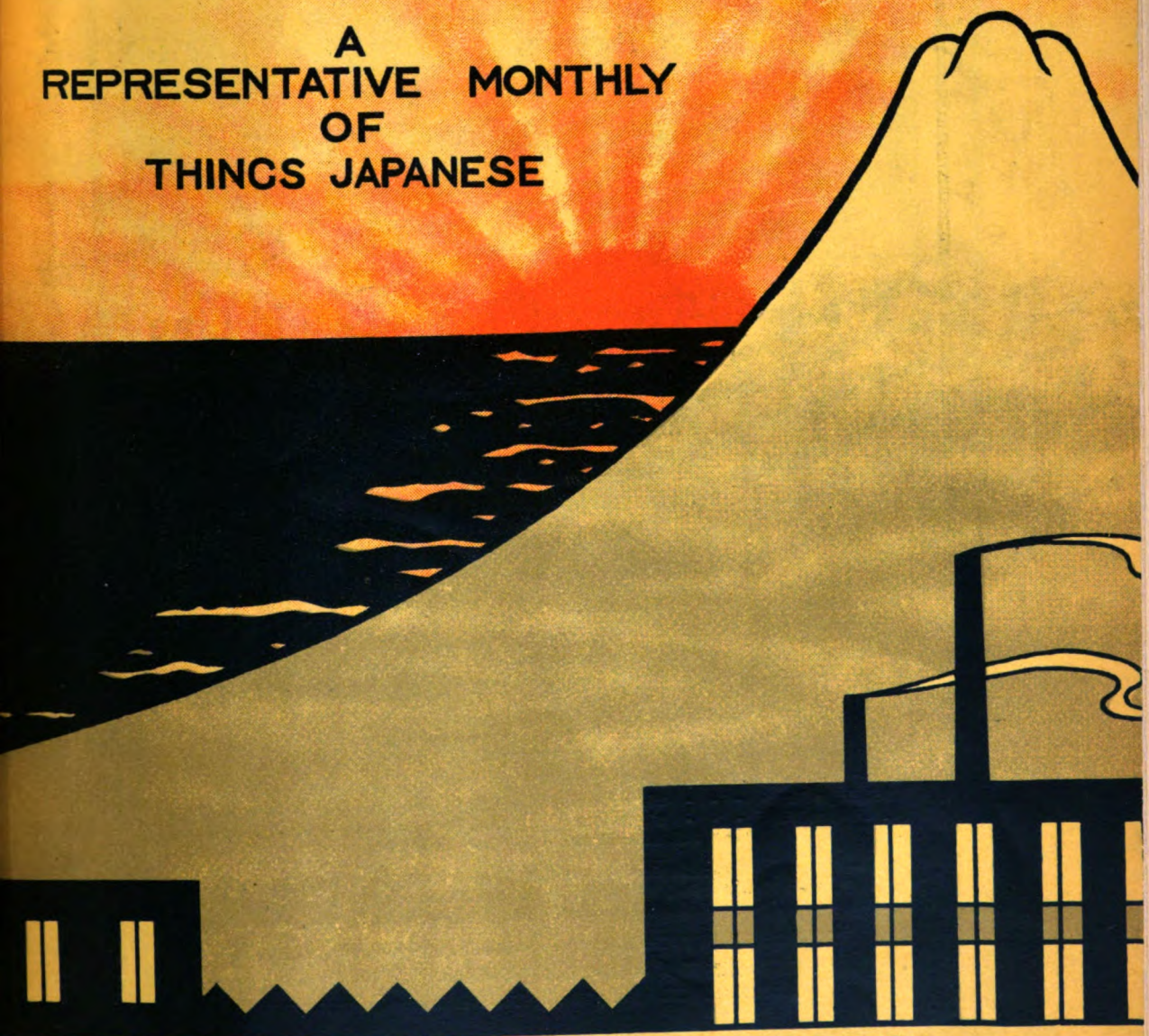

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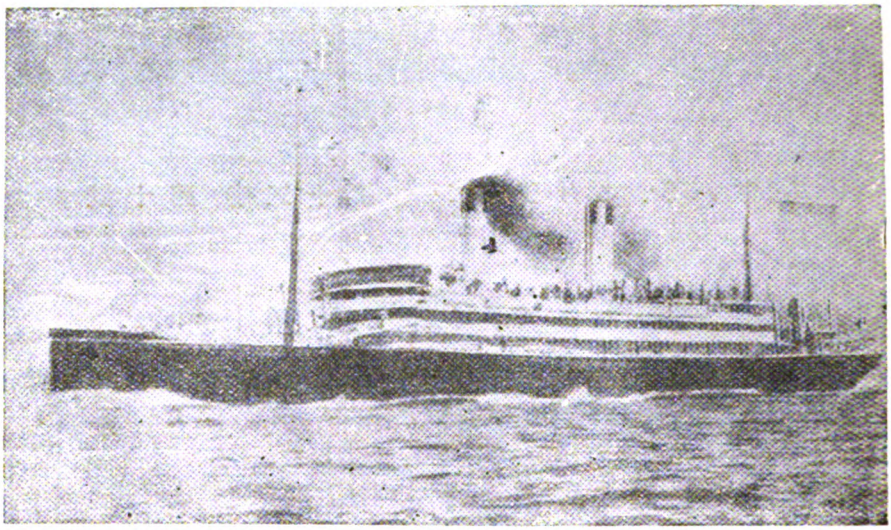

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

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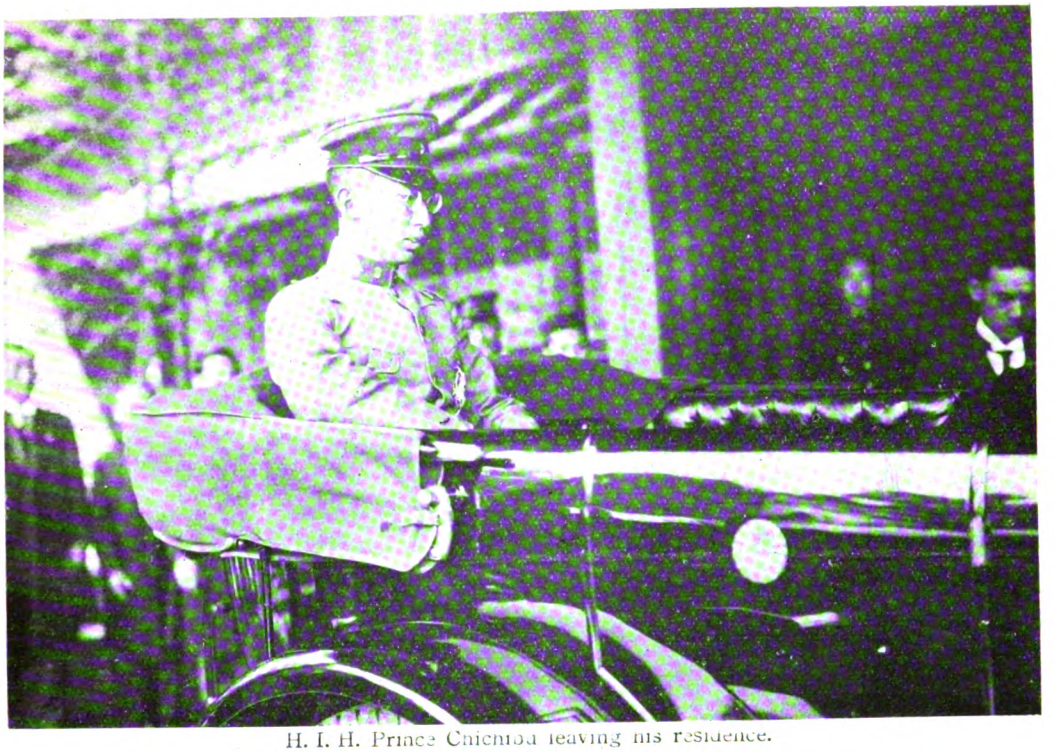
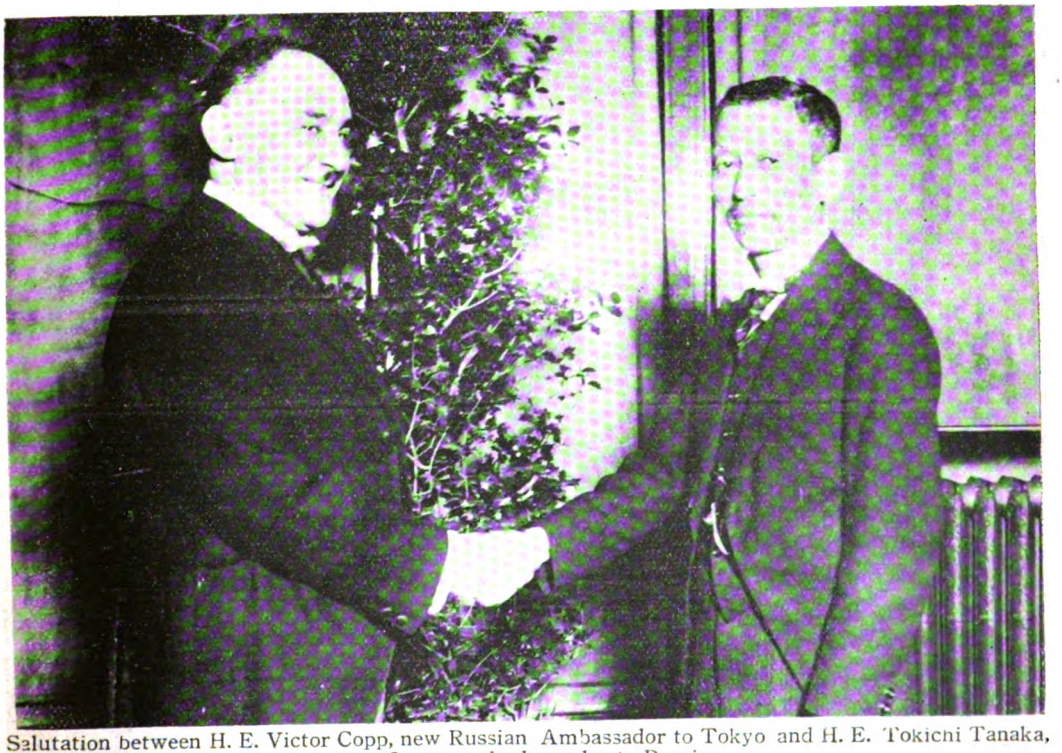


H. I. H. Prince Chichibu leaving his residence.
S. A. I. le Prince Tchi-tchibou partant de son Palais.



Salutation between H. E. Victor Copp, new Russian Ambassador to Tokyo and H. E. Tokicni Tanaka, new Japanese Ambassador to Russia.

Salutation entre S. E. M. Victor Copp, Ambassadeur de Kusse à Tokio et S. E. M. Tokichi Tanaka, Ambassadeur Japonaise à Moscow.

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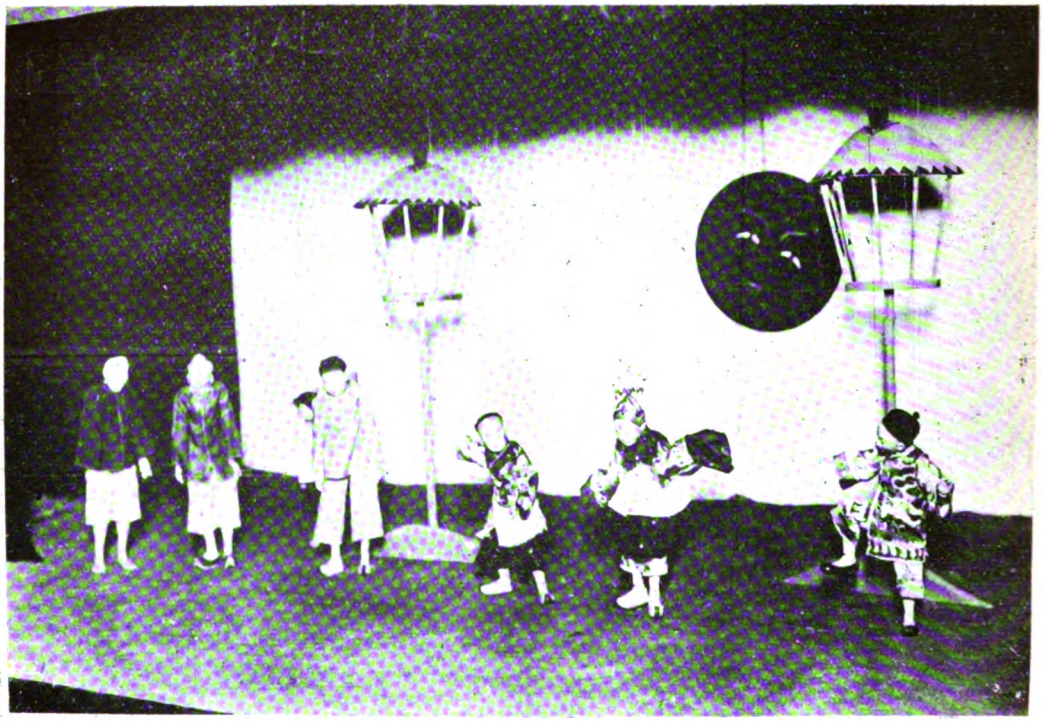

A Puppet Show at the Imperial Hotel, Tokyo.
Représentation de marionnettes á l'Hôtel Impérial.

The Grand Exercises of Primary School Children.
Jeu d'enfants.

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

VOL. XV JUNE, 1925 No. VX

The Month In Progress

THE EDITOR'S DIARY

MAY 9.—It is understood that the military authorities are setting about the preparations for the national mobilization plan.

Viscount Goto visited the Premier and is said to have laid before him a project to organize a joint-stock company with a capital of 200,000,000 yen for the object of developing the resources of Siberia, getting 7 per cent. subsidiary interest from the Japanese Government on the capital in lieu of the expenditure for the despatch of troops to the place. The Premier said he would carefully consider the matter and give a reply.

May 11.—The Imperial Silver Wedding was celebrated throughout the country. In the Imperial Palace, a luncheon was given by the Prince Regent to about 200 civil and military functionaries. The whole city of Tokyo was in gala attire.

H.I.H. Prince Chichibu was promoted to Lieutenant.

May 12.—The Premier invited to-day the private projectors of the proposed Japan Wireless Telegram Co., Ltd. to a luncheon at his official residence. The guests listened to the Premier's speech and to the Communication Minister Mr. Inukai's detailed explanation of the company's organization. At table, opinions were interchanged on the project.

May 13.—In the small hours of to-day, fire broke out in the town of Kumagaya, Saitama-ken. Fanned by a gale, the flames spread rapidly in all directions and burnt down over 700 houses, devastating one-sixth of the town, until they were checked at 5. 30 A.M.

May 14.—The regimental colours of the 16 infantry and 4 cavalry regiments, which were abolished on account of armament reduction, will be returned with ceremonies to the Prince Regent on the 25th, when they will be taken by their bearers to the Imperial Palace.

An extraordinary general meeting of the Seiyu-kai was held at which the installation of Baron Tanaka as the President and the celebration of the combination of the three political parties took place. About 2,000 persons were present.

May 16.—H. I. H. Prince Chichibu is leaving Japan for England shortly. Before his departure, it has been earnestly desired by his parents and dignitaries of the Imperial Household to select his finance, but no suitable one seems to have been found

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after their most careful search for the past few months.

About 60,000 freight cars of the nationalized railways and the railways connected with tnem are to be equipped with an automatic coupler for the three days beginning July 17th. An anxiety has been felt as to the disposal of the 4,000 connectors, but it has now been ascertained that all of them will be employed in other directions, but for 10 per cent.

In a trial run, the *Tokyo Asahi* aviator, which is to shortly visit Europe, made no-stop-flight over a distance of 1,500 metres between Tachiarai and Morioka on the 12th, pilotted by Captain Abe, breaking the record in Japan. The Imperial Aero-Society has sent a letter to the *Tokyo Asahi*, congratulating it on the success and hoping a greater achievement in the future.

May 17.—After an amount of difficulty had, the Tokyo Municipal project for the building of the underground railway lines in the city of Tokyo and environs has at last been approved conditionally by the competent authorities.

May 18.—The Communications authorities are said to have decided on a fundamental policy for the encouragement of private aviation on a very comprehensive plan from next fiscal year.

May 19.—The Seiyu Party is thinking of new platforms to be announced as a means to extend its influence by taking advantage of its fushion with two other parties. Its executives are almost at one as to a revision of the import tariff as most urgent of what to be adopted as a platform, as it is thought to be easy to procure an additional revenue of 100,000,000 yen by it.

May 20.—The educational authories are said to have decided to revise considerably the present primary school text books in consideration of the progress of the times and to use the revised books from the beginning of next school year. Since their first publication, the present books have been changed in part when necessity arose, but several important national events occuring these few years have called for their thorough revision.

May 21.—Baron Tanaka, the new President of the Seiyu Party, is said to have a new Chinese policy for the permanent welfare of Japan and the co-existence and co-prosperity of the two countries, which he wishes to accomplish by having China abolish the likin and all other taxes on merchandise, for the object of insuring the liberty and development of trade in the interior, to have a gold exchange system established in China, in addition to the existing silver exchange system, to develop traffic and communications and to re-adjust the finances of the central Government, to fix its financial sources and to stabilize the political situation in the country.

May 22.—The establishment of the Japanese Embassies in China and Turkey has not been realized in the past under various circumstances. It is said negotiations will be started formally within a few days. The Turkish Embassy will be placed in Constantinople, Mr. Obata being its first head.

May 23.—The military authorities are said to have finished investigations concerning a revision in the Conscription Law and to have decided to present the bill to the next session of the Imperial Diet after considering it at a conference of the Military, Naval, Educational, Home, Foreign and Judicial Departments.

May 24.—A severe earthquake visited Tajima Province shortly after 11. A.M.

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on the 23rd, destroying completely Toyooka-machi and Kinosaki-machi, the latter of which was known as a famous hot spring place.

The two *Tokyo Asahi* aviators *Hatsukaze* and *Kochikaze* will leave Japan for Europe over Siberia in the middle of July. The Russian Government has approved the passage of the aviators over Siberia.

May 25.—H.I.H. Prince Chichibu left Yokohama for England by the warship *Izumo* at noon on the 24th. The Prince Regent and other Imperial Princes and Princesses, high dignitaries, the corps diplomatique, members of both Houses and others, together with thousands of school pupils and people sent him off enthusiastically at the Yokohama hatoba.

May 26.—The ceremony of returning the colours of the 16 infantry and 4 cavalry regiments, which were abolished recently on account of the armaments readjustment was held in the Imperial Palace at 10.30 A.M. on the 25th.

May 27.—On the 26th, 180 military officers were put in the first reserve list, including Generals Fukuda, Yamanashi, Ono and Machida and eight Lieutenant-Generals.

May 28.—It has been officially announced that H.I.H. Crown Princess had been examined and found by the court physicians to be pregnant and to be in the fourth month. She is doing well.

May 29.—Mr. Inukai, the Minister of Communications, has decided to resign the post and to retire from the political world, in which he has taken an active part for the past forty years or so. He is also resigning membership of the House of Representatives. Mr. Kojima, the Vice-Minister of Communications, is following the step. On the 27th, Mr. Inukai visited Baron Tanaka, the President of the Seiyu-kai and Mr. Takahashi, its former President, to whom he submitted his decision for approval. In a statement made by him concerning the above course, he gives the reason for his resignation as his ardent wish to devote himself hereafter to the spreading of the purpose of the manhood suffrage, pilloting, if he can, the youths, newly enfranchised, as their adviser, for the remnant of his active life, which will be only five or six years.

May 30.—On the 29th, a regular Cabinet conference was held, and it considered and accepted formally the resignation of Mr. Inukai.

May 31.—Mr. K. Adachi the manager of the Kensei-kai was appointed the Minister of Communications in succession o Mr. Inukai and the installation ceremony took place to-day in the Akasaka Palace.

June 1.—The Home Department is considering the second colonization program of the Hokkaido.

June 2.—The Government wishes to appropriate an amount for the formation of a fuel research system in next fiscal year, in realization of its cherished desire in the past several years, as the fuel question has grown more important now. The exact amount of petroleum oil in deposit in Japan has not yet been mentioned. The deposit of coal was estimated to be 8,792,000,000 tons in 1911, but the estimate was unreliable.

June 3.—The South Sea Office of Japan is said to have decided on an adventureous visit to the mandate South Sea Islands from Japan by an oil engined boat of 30 tons, as a trial of its plan to open a new route between the two places.

June 4.—Dr. Gejo, a great bacteriologist in the Tokyo Municipal Hygienic

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Laboratory, has recently discovered that the typhoid bacillus has eight species, each of which has a different nature. This discovery is considered epochmaking in the treatment of typhoid fever.

June 6.—At the Cabinet conference held on the 5th, it is said to have been decided to make next fiscal year's estimates under a retrenchment policy as for this fiscal year, admitting no new demands but of urgent nature, but including 20,000,000 yen to be additionally paid by the Treasury as primary school teachers' salaries, in preference to all other demands.

June 7.—Yokohama has a plan of a big hotel building under the direction of the Mayor Mr. Ariyoshi. The hotel will be placed on the Bund and will be a four storied ferro-concrete building, covering an area of 2,000 *tsubo* and having about 100 rooms. It will be built and managed by a joint-stock company with a capital of 1,500,000 yen. The object is to facilitate the sojowm of foreign business men and others in Yokohama.

June 9.—The Biwa Lake Association has been formed recently under the presidency of Mr. Suyematsu, the Governor of Shiga Prefecture, for the purpose of planning and managing public enterprises for developing Biwa Lake and other places of scenic beauty in the neighbourhood, which will be finally made into a national park.

June 10.—The recent earthquake in San-in District has brought many examples of how some animals are sensitive to natural disasters as the earthquake in Kwanto District did. In this connection. Mr. Hayashi, the Chief of the Tennoji Zoological Garden, Osaka, has stated that the macaw is exceedingly susceptible to such things, but none excels the crocodile and one in the Osaka garden made an unusually big roar just before the severe shock was felt.

June 11.—The Naval authorities seem to be inclined to shorten the term of service if the Military authorities decide on it. The term to be shortened will be one year.

June 12.—The Imperial Academy is said to project issuing at least once in a month bulletins entitled "Proceedings of the Imperial Academy," except August and September, containing outlines of general and scientific researches inventions in Japan, the publication of which has hitherto been liable to be rather too late. These publications will be distributed gratis among the foreign and Japanese universities, libraries, institutes, academies, etc.

The Judicial Department is said to have decided to permit women to practise at the bar, after a series of conferences held by the Lawyers' Law Revision Committee. The recent great growth of female crimes seems to have accelerated the adoption of the decision. Accordingly female judges and public procurators may be appointed. There is, however, a bar to the practical realization of the decision, namely, the question of women's qualifications for examination for advocates, for no women can enter the schools, whose graduates only are qualified for the examination, under the existing educational system.

June 13.—The unemployment is increasing more and more among the school graduates, there being over 30 per cent. of this year's graduates of 51 Government and private academies being still unable to find employment as against the average rate of 23 per cent. in the previous two years. These unemployed graduates are most of the law, economic and literary courses and partly of the

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medical, scientific and engineering courses. The female graduates have a very high percentage of unemployment.

June 14.—The Conscription Law Revision Commission in the Army Department met for the first time on the 8th and will meet on every Monday from the 22nd, completing its wore within three months. The fundamental lines, along which the law will be revised, are said to be that the revision is considered on the premise that military education can be given to young men and boys from the fiscal year of 1926-1927 and that the present term of service with the colours of two years be shortened to one year and a half.

June 15.—The exploration of the Canadian Rockies is planned by the Nippon Sangaku-kai with the support of the *Osaka Mainichi* and the *Tokyo Nichi Nichi*. The explorers, Mr. A. Maki and six others, will leave Japan for America on the 19th.

The jubilant tiffin to which the Tokyo citizens were invited at the passage of the Universal Suffrage Bill.

Réjouissances publiques à l'occasion du vote du suffrage universel.

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A History of the Japanese Stage

FAMOUS actors in the first half of the Horeki era were Otani Hiroji and Bando Hikosaburo, besides Ichikawa Danjuro the Second and Sawamura Sojuro the First, whom we have already diserved. These four were then called the *shitenno* of Yedo actors (the *shitenno* being the four Deva kings, thus alluding to the four greatest). Ichikawa Danzo the First, the senior of the above four, was called the *hitori-musha* (the lone hero) in contrast to the "*shitenno*".

Ichikawa Danzo became a pupil of Ichikawa Danjuro the First in the eighth year of Genroku (1688). He excelled in *aragoto* (rough characters) and *katakiyaku* (villain's part). He was best in a pathetic scene, and as one remonstrating to a lord, he gave a feeling of reality to spectators, who were deeply moved by his acting. Being old-fashined and steady, he did not make any exceptionally great hit. Yet his grand, weighty and dignified attitude accounted much for his greatness on the stage.

Otani Hiroji was the real son of Otani Hiroyemon, a famous actor. In the 14th year of Genroku (1701), he first played the role of a child at the Morita Theatre. In the 7th year of Hoyei, he impersonated a bad court-noble at the Yamamura Theatre. In the third year of Shotoku, he performed with such success at the Nakamura Theatre, that it marked the beginning of his rise in the theatrical world. Later, he played a warrior in the person of Omori Hikoshichi, as Ichikawa Danjuro the Second acted also in *aragoto* as Daito-no-Miya. The *seridashi* (emergence from below the stage) was first introduced in Yedo then, a method adopted to give a super-realistic air and to present a picturesque scene.

In the 16th year of Kyoho (1731) Otani played the part of Yui Shosetsu at the Nakamura Theatre. When Shosetsu and his younger sister Katsuragi (a prostitute impersonated by Segawa Kikunojo) declared their names to each other, it was quickly changed from the form of a domestic drama into that of the gorgeous costuming of a historical play. He took the model of this change from a marionette play at the Takeda Theatre, Osaka. This quick change has since been known as the *hikinuki* in Yedo.

Big and burly, he was generous and grand in acting.

Bando Hikosaburo first entered the theatrical world of Yedo in the 4th year of Hoyei (1707). Later, he played in Kyoto and Osaka, and came back to Yedo some time after the above year. He was characteristically steady in acting, He once said that while playing the role of a samurai, one must always carry a short sword with him even in the green-room, for the prudent samurai never forgot to wear his sword wherever he was.

Once he met Ichikawa Danjuro, Sawamura Sojuro and Otani Hiroji in Danjuro's house and talked with them of their studies of art, He said:

"In my youth, I successfully played the part of Mohei the Paper-Hanger, and this success was the first step towards my rise in the world. When I recollect it, however, I feel ashamed of my poor art. Later, I took the character of Tsukimoto Mushanosuke in Ganryu-jima, and I had Fujikawa Hanzaburo as my opponent, who played the part of the villain. I owe

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much of my success to his realistic acting of the villain. For the subsequent four years, I do not feel I was successful, although I have been praised for my art."

This talk illustrates his straightforwardness of character.

The theatrical world in Yedo in the latter part of the Horeki era was represented by the following three actors.

Ichikawa Danjuro the Fourth is said to have been a lovechild of Ichikawa Danjuro the Second. He succeeded to the name, as the third Danjuro, the heir of the second, died young. For a time after his succession to the name, he was slightly looked down upon by theater-goers, who spoke of his acting not fitting the style of the Ichikawa family. The criticism was reasonable in part, for he and the second Danjuro were extremely different from one other on every point of action and character. The second was small, while the fourth was tall. The former had a round face and was sanguine, while the latter had a long face and was nervous. The former calmly composed a *haiku* (short ode), when his son died, while the latter cried in the presence of other actors at the loss of his grand son. The former was open minded and gentle, while the latter was emotional and manly.

As the two were so different in character and physique so they were two extremes on the stage. The Second best suited the part of rough charactors to meet the taste of the light hearted and open-minded spectators of the Genroku period, while the fourth was best qualified for the realistic representation of cruel scenes, expressional of the modern deliberate and nervous sentiment. The Second was lively and showy in acting and the Fourth was cheerless and modest. The latter took a course which was quite different from the hereditary way of acting of the Ichikawa family. Those who demanded rough character roles from Ichikawa Danjuro, were disappointed at the acting of the Fourth and criticized him.

His strongest role was that of a double-dyed scoundrel. He was best at the impersonation of Taira-no-Kagekiyo, which won the applause of the spectaters and which he did innumerable times. He was an earnest student of stage-craft, and always studied it with careful attention with his colleagues.

This earnest study of his art steadily elevated his value in the eyes of theater-goers, who has once spoken ill of him, until he won the highest popularity and the reputation of being the leading light of the theatrical world.

Otani Hiroji the Second, who was a son of Tatsumatsu Buzayemon, a puppet-player, was at first with the father. Later, he became a pupil of Otani Hiroji the First, when he was called Otani Bunzo. He was connected with the Ichimura Theatre in the 20th year of Kyoho (1735), and succeeded to the name of his master in the first year of Kanbun (1748). He was big and handsome. His stage attitudes bore a striking resemblance to those of his master. At first, he played the roles of villains. Later, he became skilful in playing the part of Omori Hikoshichi and was accustomed to the part of *aragoto* (rough charactors) and *jitsu-goto* (true plays).

Once, he wrestled with Nakamura Sukegoro on the stage. This brought down the house. He often performed the same play.

Onoye Kikugoro the First, who was a son of Otowaya Hanpei, at the Miyako Mandayu Theatre, Kyoto, became a pupil of Onoye Samon, an actor takin[3]

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female parts, in Kyoto, in his childhood. In the 15th year of Kyoho (1730), he first appeared on the Kyoto stage as an actor in young men's parts, Afterwards, he played the role of women. In the first year of Kanpo (1741), he played with the company of Ichikawa Danjuro the Second, when they visited Osaka. Danjuro, who appreciated his talent, took him to Yedo. He won success as an actor playing female parts in Yedo. In the 2nd year of Horeki (1752), he became an independent leading actor. In Yedo, Kyoto and Osaka, he successfully retained his name and position as an actor of the first rank. He died in the 3rd year of Tenmei (1791).

He was distinguished by his good looks. When he impersonated a woman, he was enchantingly pretty. He was best as an amorous woman. He succeeded as a leading actor playing male parts afterwards, too. So much success won by a single man in male and female parts had never been excelled in the past.

He was earnest in his work and went so much detail in acting as to make the spectators tired of it. This excessive minuteness and artifice were liable to ill affect the atmosphere on the stage. This was his defect. The same thing was seen in Onoye Kikugoro the Fifth in the Meiji era. It is strange, for they had no blood relation.

Other famous contemporary actors were Sawamura Sojuro the Second, Ichikawa Danzo the Third, Nakamura Denkuro the Second, Morita Kan-ya the Sixth and Ichimura Uzayemon the Ninth, who were all *tate-yaku* (leading roles) and Ichikawa Sozaburo, Nakajima Mioyemon, Otani Hiroyemon the Second and Sakata Hangoro the Second, who were *kataki-yaku* (actors of the villain's part).

These actors had their residences in Kyoto, Osaka or Yedo. So we can classify them as Yedo or Kamigata (Kyoto and Osaka) actors. Actors playing female parts were best in Kamigata. These Kamigata men were connected with the East and the West without establishing permanent domiciles, and there were no purely Yedo actors among them.

Without distinction of residence, Segawa Kikunojo is worthy of first mention.

Segawa was at first connected with a theatre at Dotonbori, Osaka. In the 2nd year of Shotoku (1712), he trod the stage of the Ogino-Yayegiri Theatre first as an actor playing female parts. His name was not so well known until the 5th year of Kyoho (1720), when he was 30 years of age. It was in about the 7th year that his ability began to be recognized by the public.

In the 15th year of Kyoho (1730), he visited Yedo and made his first appearance before the footlights at the Nakamura Theatre. He stayed in Yedo for seven years, in which he gained fame. Later, he went back to Kyoto and came to Yedo again in the first year of Kanpo (1741). He died in the year following at the age of 59. Until his death, he retained the reputation of being the most talented *onna-gata* (actor of feminine roles).

His best point was his good looks and womanly attitude. Even in his last days, he looked quite girlish, when he wore a long sleeved garment. This was not simply because of his endowments, but the outcome of his usual study and efforts.

He was a master dancer and his superior ability was shown typically in the *Mugen-no-Kane*, the *Dojo-ji*, and the *Shakkyo*.

Sanogawa Mangiku first appeared on the stage at the age of 16, and in the 5th year of Shotoku (1715), at the age of 25, he first played the role of a young woman. He gained popularity in Kyoto, Osaka and Yedo. He was best in ordinary plays, while Kikunojo's best point was pantomimic dancing. He was skilful in elocution. In his last years, he was not so renowned as Kikunojo. He died in the 4th year of Enkyo (1747) at the age of 58.

Yoshizawa Ayame the Second, the eldest son of the predecessor, came to play feminine roles in the 3rd year of Kyoho (1718), when he was 17 years

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of age. He succeeded to his father's name on his death in the 14th year of Kyoho (1729).

He did not look so fine and had not a good voice. He did not, therefore, please the common spectators. He gained favour in acting as the wife of a *samurai*, but he failed to win a great rebutation.

Segawa Kikujiro, a younger brother of Segawa Kikunojo, made his first appearance on the stage of Kyoto in the 10th year of Kyoho (1725). In the 16th year he came to Yedo, where he stayed seven years. Then, he was in Kyoto and Osaka until the 3rd year of 1743, when he again came to Yedo, where he died at the age of 42.

Unlike his elder brother, he had no good looks and no excellent ability in dancing. He was considered, however, as a master in common plays. He was an adept at the representation of courtezans and samurai's wives. He was an expert in love and pathetic scenes, and excelled in jealous action. His weak point was that he was too true to fact and went into too much detail in wording and action, which tired the spectators. Everybody admitted, however, that his actions on the stage were realistic and had the flavour of naturalism.

His premature death was exceedingly regretted by those who expected him to become a better actor than his elder brother,

Arashi Koroku was famous as a leading actor in juvenile theatricals in Kyoto and other places and was first associated successfully with adults at an Osaka theatre in the 12th year of Kyoho (1727), when he was 19 years of age. He became a pupil of Arashi San-yemon the Third and gave more promise. In the 17th year of Kyoho (1732), at the age of 24, he began to take female characters. In the 3rd year of Enkyo (1746), at the age of 38, he came to Yedo, where he stayed five years. In the 13th year of Horeki (1763), he visited Osaka, where he took leading parts. At the age of 60, he ceased to play female characters and acted only leading parts. So He died at the age of 77.

He had grand looks. His art was of very wide range, and he played almost every part with success. As to his weak points, he is said to have been not very charming, boastful of his art and deficient in softness and enthusiasm in acting. For this reason, he was unpopular despite the excellence of his art.

Nakamura Tomijuro, the third son of Yoshizawa Ayame the First and a younger brother of Yoshizawa Ayame the Second, was adopted by an actor called Nakamura Shingoro in his childhood. He came to Yedo with his foster-father and made his debut at the Ichimura Theatre in the spring of the 16th year of Kyoho (1731) as a juvenils player. Thereafter he spent his time between Kyoto, Osaka and Yedo. His stage life lasted 55 years.

At the age of 33, he was rated as the extra very best, the highest valuation of actors. He well kept up this reputation until he was well on in years. He was perfection as an actor with a fine appearance and many-sided.

He was skilled in dancing, He was clever at the impersonation of wives, daughters, maids and prostitutes. His father, Ayame, the First was an able player and dancer. But Ayame the Second and the Third, or the first and youngest sons of the father, were able successors as common players and not as dancers. Tomijuro well inherited both talents. He was the greatest actor of female parts in the latter half of the Horeki era as Segawa Kikunojo was in its first half.

The *Kyoganoko-Musume-Dojoji*, a celebrated pantomime, which is popular even to-day, was created by him.

Other noted players of female roles were Yoshizawa Ayame the Third, Nakamura Kiyotaro, Segawa Kikunojo the Second, Azuma Tozo and Nakamura Matsuye, of whom Segawa was of great promise but died a premature death at the age of 33.

A Namiki Shozo was a genious playwright of the age. A son of a confectioner in Osaka, he had a fondness for

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plays and became a pupil of Namiki Sosuke, a writer of ballad-dramas, under whom he wrote plays.

He was also a good designer. He designed elaborate staging and invented original devices such as *seri-age* (emergence from under the stage), *seri-sage* (exit below the stage), stage revolving, etc. Not many of his works are, however, in use to-day. His pupils were all called Namiki and exercused great influence in the theatrical world until the Restoration of Meiji as playwrights other than of ballad dramas.

The only one who was not called Namiki was Nakawa Kamesuke, who gave up his family business on account of his dissipation and became a playwright. His mastepieces, which are staged even to-day, are the *Igagoye-Norikake-Kappa*, the *Kagamiyama-Sato-no-Kikigaki* and the *Tenkajaya-mura*.

In Yedo, Tsuchi Jihei led the playwrights. In the 3rd year of Kyoho (1718), he wrote the *Fuji-no-Takane-Soga*, the subject of which was Yaoya-Oshichi, who set fire to her house in her longing to see her lover. The play was his masterpiece.

Once he read a new play before Danjuro the Second, but it did not pleaae him. He read another play, but it did not satisfy him, either, When he was going to read a third play, Danjuro stopped him, saying:—

"What a good playwright you are! to prepare three new plays for staging, which cannot be hoped for from any other! I'll leave everything with you in the selection of a play and rehearse at once under your direction."

Accordingly, the first play was put on the boards, and it was a great success.

Among other noted playwrights in Yedo, we can mention Tsuchi Hanyemon, Nakamura Seizaburo, Sawamura Tobun, Horigoshi Fumiji and Kanai Sansho.

The Japanese Star Actors and T. E. the French Ambassador, Danish Minister and German Ambassador at Kabuki Theatre, Tokyo.

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The State Regulation of Religion

CHAPTER I

AT the time of the Restoration, the whole governmental system underwent a complete change, and in the third year of Meiji (1870) the Mimbusho was established. One of the bureaus known as the "Office of Shinto Shrines and Buddhist Temples" looked after affairs relating to religions. In the following year, however, this Department was abolished, and the office of religious affairs was transferred to the Department of Finance. With the establishment of the Kyobusho in 1872, the shrines and temples were placed under the care of the new Department. The Government then appointed Shinto and Buddhist priests as official "religious instructors" who were to preach and educate the whole nation on the following three principles of morality: (1) To cherish reverence for the Gods and the spirit of patriotism; (2) To elucidate Heavenly Reason and the Principle of Humanity; and (3) To honor and pay homage to the Emperor and to observe the Imperial ordinances. In 1877, the Kyobusho ceased to exist, and whole office hitherto conducted by this Department was handed over to the Department of Home Affairs (Naimusho) which was first instituted in 1873. In 1884, the official appointment of "religious instructors" (Kyodoshoku) was discontinued, and the authority to appoint preachers was entrusted to the Head-priests (Kwancho) of the various Sects, Shinto or Buddhist, together with the right of selecting the resident priest (Fushoku) for the temple under their jurisdiction. Further, each Sect was given the power to manage its own affairs under the supervision of the government, which now relinquished its missionarizing function. Religion was thus separated from politics. When the Constitution was promulgated on the 11th of February in the 22nd year of Meiji (1889), the principle of religious freedom was established. It was in April, 1900, that the former "Bureau of Shrined and Temples" was divided into two sections, one to the known as the "Bureau or Shinto Shrines" and the other as the "Bureau of Religious." All administrative policy affecting the Shinto shrines is now carried out exclusively by the former and is quite independent of the policy that concerns itself with religions. In 1913, the "Bureau of Religions" was transferred to the Department of Education (Mombusho) and continues to be under its jurisdiction.

There are three religions in Japan now, and as we have yet no specific laws defining their political status in connection with the state, it is inevitable that the government has to deal with these three religions each in a different way; while the principle of the administrative policy can suffer no change inasmuch as the Constitution guarantees freedom of faith. But the government finds it quite natural not to mete out a uniform method of supervision over all the religions,—over Buddhism which has been standing, as a great moral influence, in a very close relation to the state and society for more than one thousand years, and over Shinto which is the national cult of Japan, and over Christianity whose introduction to this country is a matter of a few decades.

Practically speaking, the religious denominations which are officially recognized and come under the proper jurisdiction of the Bureau of Religions at present are of Shinto and Buddhism. The denominations of Shinto are called "Kyoha" while those of Buddhism are "Shuha." A religious order is the congregation of preachers and followers gathered around a definite system of creeds, prodiding themselves with temples or preaching halls or other institutions from which their religious movements issue. While there are yet no special regulations concerning cases of secession or incorporation in the Shinto or Buddhist Sects, such are practically made impossible without the approval of the Minister of Education. Affairs affecting only the inner policy of the

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various Sects are left as a rule to their own self-government, but the state requires them to compile certain fundamental rule whereby their adminissrative policies are broadly defined, and which are to be approved by the Minister of Education. When these rules are abolished or altered, the same approval is necessary. The state also requires each Sect, Shinto or Buddhist, to select a Headpriest (called a "Kwancho" in Japanese) who will govern and represent that body. This appointment again awaits the official approval. The following particulars are to be defined in the compilation of a constitution for each sect:

1. The fundamental law.
2. The status of the preacher and his official title.
3. Grades of preachers and their appointment and dismissal.

These are to be regulated by each Shinto Headpriest.

1. The fundamental law.
2. Rules concerning the management of temples.
3. The status of tne priest and preacher and their official titles.
4. The appointment and dismissal of the resident priest (called "Jushoku") of a temple, and grades of preachers, and their appointment and dismissal.
5. The preservation of old historical documents, treasures, and properties belonging to the temples.

These are to be regulated by each Buddhist Head-priest.

The constitution of each Sect, besides thus defining the aforementioned particulars, has also to regulate, through practical necessity various affairs concerning its self-government. For instance, the constitution must define the functions and powers of the Head-priest and the method of election; the organization and power of the council; functions of various officers; financial matters; organization of a temple or a preaching hall; qualifications of a resident priest; affairs relating to persons such as conferring honors or meting out punishments; missionary worl, education, and other functional activities. The constitution is thus a body of fundamental rule for each Sect, wherein the government finds its subject-matters of supervision outlined. It goes without saying that the Head-priest governs his own Sect according to the articles of this law. Therefore, what the government does in the matter of supervision over the various Sect of Shinto and Buddhism, is, before the compilation of their fundamental laws, to indicate to them what are needed for that kind of work, and when they are prepared, to give its official approval, and when all this is done, to see if all the provisions are being satisfactorily carried out.

While thus the government directly supervises all the Sects of Shinto and Buddhism, all the practical functionings of their propaganda work are left to the care of the local governors. For instance, when the Shintoists or Buddhists want to build temples or preaching halls, they have to apply to the local governors, through whose permission they are authorized to proceed with their work. As Buddhist temples or other buildings, on account of their historical significance, are regarded as legal persons, they are specially under the government supervision. That is, the use of the temple grounds, changes in their acreage, cutting down the trees, and the disposition of immovable property, temple treasures, historical documents, or fundamental funds, —all this necessitates the official a proval of the local governor.

As regards the Christian denominations, the state gives no official recognition as in the cases of the Shinto or Buddhist denominations. But this does not mean that the state takes no cognizance of their existence, only that they as such stand in no legal relationship to the government. The officiol supervision, therefore, in the case of Christianity does not go any further than looking after its missionary activities such as selecting preachers, establishing churches or preaching stations or other similar establishments. The Departmental Ordinance, No. 41, issued in 1899, regulates these matters. (See

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P. 10 et sqe.) According to which those who wish to engage in missionary work must notify the local governor as to the name of their religion and methods of preaching, together with their vitae curriculum. When they want to build churches or other establishments to be used for religious purposes, they are requested to apply for the permission of the local authorities. Such applications shall contain details of the said establishments, methods of management and maintenance, qualifications of the preacher, and the process of selecting such personages.

Generally speaking, the state makes special provisions for the Shinto and Buddhist denominations for the reason of their peculiar historical status, and puts them under a special governmental supervision; while with Christianity the state contents itself with being a general overseer. As far as their religious functions are concerned, the government makes no distinction whatever between Shinto and Buddhism and Christianity. It they do not disturb the peace of the country or practise immoralities while propagating their doctrines and carrying out their respective religious rituals, they are of course left to themselves unmolested.

There are not a few educational institutions established by the various religious orders for the purpose of bringing up properly qualified preachers. These schools are, like other professional or general educational establishments, placed under the supervision of the Minister of Education. As to charity work such as reformatories, dispensaries, and other organizations maintained by the religious orders, they belong to the jurisdiction of the Home Minister as in the case of other similar activities, and are naturally supervised by the same officer. They stand in no direct relationship with the administration of religious affairs.

The following are the regulations referred to in the various laws and government ordinances concerning the privileges and limitations of the religious orders as well as those of the religious preachers:

"Those organizations that are of a religious natures and whose objects are not making profit may be incorporated as legal person." (The Civil Law, Art. 34.)

"They are punishable by law who publicly act irreverantly towards the Shinto shrines, Buddhist temples, graves, or places of worship, or who interfere with religious preachings, or worshiping, or funeral rites, or who desecrate the Shinto shrines, Buddhist temples, places of worship, graveyards, monumental tablets, or sacred images." (The Penal Law, Art. 188, 189 and Police Regulations, Art. 2.)

"The grounds and buildings that are used for religious purposes are exempt from local taxations." (The Municipal Law, Art. 121; the Town and Village Law, Art. 10; and the Prefectural Law, Art. 110.)

"Income taxes are not levied upon temples, shrines, or such legal persons as were created according to the Articles of the Civil Law." (The Income Tax Act, Art. 17.)

"No fees are required for registering lands, temples, or shrines (including all places of worship, Shinto, Buddhist, or Christian)." (The Registration Fees Act. Art. 19.)

"Objects necessary for religious worship, graveyards, or monumental tablets, or uniforms, robes, or dresses needed for performing religious functions are not to be confiscated." (The Direct Taxation Act, Art. 16 and the Law of Civil Procedure, Art. 570).

"Religious preachers and Buddhist priests are not eligible for membe.s of the Diet, of the Prefectnral Assembly, or of any public organizations." (The Regulations Concerning the Mutual Ecection of the Highest Tax-payers as Members of the House of Peers, Art. 3; the Election Law of the Member of the House of Representatives, Art. 13; the Prefectural Law, Art. 6; the County Law, Art. 6; the Municipal Law, Art. 18; the Town and Village Law, Art. 15 etc.)

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"Religious preachers and Buddhist priests are not to belong to any political organizations." (The Law of the Public Peace, Art. 5.)

"If those who hold or held religious offices should betray without reason the secret entrusted to them in their official capacity, they are punishable by law. They may also refuse to be witnesses concerning such matters." (The Penal Law, Art. 134; the Law of Penal Procedure, Art. 125; and the Law of Civil Procedure, Art. 298.)

In Korea we have a different set of regulations governing all the religious activities regardless of their sectarianism. Those who wish to propagatate their faith have to inform the Governor-General as to the name of the religion to which they belong, and the means of propagation; and this note is to be accompanied by a certificate of their qualifications as preachers and also by their vitae curriculum. Those who have established churches or places of religious instruction must notify the Governor-General as to the following particulars: the name of the establishment, its location, the name of religion to which it belongs, the qualifications of the preachers, methods of their selection, the defrayal of the expenses of building it, and methods of its management and maintenance. Whenever any alterations take place in the above particulars, the authorities are to be informed of them. When the various Sects of Shinto or Buddhism in Japan Proper wish to missionarize in Korea, they are to appoint a supervisor of such activities with the approval of the Governor-General. In this case, the religious orders thus engaged must have a constitution and definitely fix the power of the missionary supervisor and the methods of the supervision over the missionaries. The same regulations are applicable to the various Sects of Christianity when they have missionary supervisors according to their own rules. When the Governor-General of Korea deems it necessary to have such supervisors for the Christian missionaries, he may order them to appoint such. The Buddhist temples belonging to their respective Sects in Japan Proper are to observe the temple regulations; that is say, their establishment or removal, the disposition of the temple properties, the felling of the trees, and other things must have the permission of the Governor-General. Special provisions are made for the Buddhist temple already in existence in Korea.

The government regulations are exclusively for the supervision of religious establishments. When a temple is to be built up, the Governor-General requests before giving his permission a full information as to the name of the said temple, the Sect to which it belongs, the plans of the buildings and abolishment or grounds, and the ways of maintaining them. Its removal of incorporation also requires the same procedure. As to the establishment of other places of religious instruction, the local governor's permission must be obtained. In this case, the application must give full information as to the following: What is the name of such an establishment; what is the Sect to which it belongs; what are the qualifications of the missionary, For the numerous temples and shrines built under the old regime and still in existence, the Formosan government has made special provisions in regard to their removal or abolishment or incorporation.

* * *

In Karsfuto (South Saghalien) the process is at present going on as to the compilation of rules governing mission work and the establishment of temples or churches.

Art. 1. Those who are desirous of engaging in the propagation of religion shall inform the governor of the locality where their domicile is, or in case they have no dimicile, where their residence is, as regards the following particulars, accompanied by their vitae curiculum:

1. The name of the denomination;
2. Methods of propagation.

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Those who are already engaged in the propagation of religion before this Ordinance came into effect, shall give information as to the aforesaid particulars, within two months after this Ordinance becomes effective.

In case who those who have been engaged in the propagation of religion after giving information as to the aforesaid particulars, should discontinue their work, they shall inform the local governor of the fact.

Art. II. Those who are desirous of building for religious purposes churches, chapels, preaching stations, or other similar buildings, shall obtain the permission of the governor of the locality where they are to be situated, as regards the following particulars:

1. Reason for requiring such establishments;
2. Time-limit as to the completion of such esblishments;
3. Name, location, and essential particulars concerning grounds, and buildings, accompanied by plans;
4. Name of the denomination;
5. Methods of management and maintenance;
6. In case of a special preacher's being attached, his qualifications and methods of selecting him.

When the building of the said churches, chapels, preaching stations, or other similar establishments, is not completed within the time-limit as specified in foregoing Clause 2, the permission given above shall lose its efficacy.

The Founder, or manager (when there is no founder, or himself,) of such a church, chapel, preaching station or a similar establishment as has already been in existence and used for religious purposes, shall inform the local governor as to all the particulars mentioned in Clause 1, within one month after the present Ordinance becames effective.

Such notice shall be considered the same as a permission as regards Clause 1.

Art. III. The aforementioned founder or manger (when there is no founder, or when the founder is presented from attending to the matter himself,) shall give information to the local governor as to the vitae curriculum of the manager and the preacher. When change in number of personage has taken place as to the manager or the specially attached preacher, the same regulation shall be applicable.

Art. IV. When change take place in the facts mentioned in Clause 1 of Article 1, or when the domicile or residence is removed, this shall be notified within two weeks to the local governor by one who is engaged in the propagation of religion. But when the domiciles or residence is removed to a locality other than that in which a notice was already given as to Clacses 1 and 2 of Article 1, the notice of the removal shall be given to the governor of the former locality, and a notice as to Clause 1 of Article I shall be given to the governor of the new locality.

When alterations take place in any particulars refereed to in Article II, the founder or the manager (when there is no founder or when the founder is prevented from attending to the mother himself), shall obtain a new permission from the local governor, stating reasons for such alterations. But in case of removal permission shall be obtained from the governor of the locality where the new site is to be located.

When a church, chapel, preaching station, or a similar establishment used for religious purposes, is abolished or removed, this shall be notified within two weeks to the governor of the locality where the abolishment or the removal took place.

Art. V. The founder or the manager of a church, chapel, preaching station, or a similar establishment founded under Article II, shall report to the local governor by January 31 each year as regards the number of followers present at the end of the previous year.

Art. VI. As to the preachers of Shinto or Buddhism, and as is the founding, removal, or abolishment of temples, chapels, preaching halls, or other establishments, which belong to Shinto or

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Buddhism, the regulations already in force shall be applicable.

Art. VII. The present Ordinance shall be put into effect on and after August the fourth, in the thirty-second year of Meiji (1899).

CHAPTER II

Shinto, which is the national cult of the Japanese people, consists in worshipping the gods heavenly and earthly. With the introduction of Confucianism the Japanese intellect gradually gaind in its complexity, and Buddhism which reached here a little later from Korea proved a great factor in the development of Shinto. The result was that the latter began to be something of a religion in form and spirit. There were yet no special Sects to be known by the name of Shinto. It was towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate that several Shinto schools came into existence with their formulas and sacred texts so that many of them now became worthy of the name of religion. There are thirteen different denominations of Shinto that are, along with the various Sects of Buddhism, under the administrative supervision of the state.

The Shinto Sect

This Sect still retains the general name given to the national cult when by this name the various Shinto branches were known. The Principal ideas of the Sect are to develop the Great Way of the Gods, and to propagate the national cult indigenous to the people of this land. Its devotes consider the following the most imprrtant in their teachings: To cultivate reverence for the Gods, to cherish the spirit of patriotism, to elucidate Heavenly Reason and Humanity, to pay homage to the Emperor, and to observe all the Imperial ordinances.

The Kurozumi Sect

This was first founded by Munetada Kurozumi (1780-1850), whose main thoughts are to inhale, while contemplating the Goddess Amaterasu Omikahi, the energy of the sun the thereby to fill up the heart with satisfaction and complaisance. He teaches to avoid the following seven evils which are against the will of the Gods: 1. To be faithless when one is born in the country of the Gods; 2. To get angry and to worry over things; 3. To be arrogant and spiteful; 4. To arouse evil desires seeing others do evil; 5. To neglect one's household affairs while in good health; 6. Not to have sincerity; even when one is entering upon the path of sincerity and 7. Not to accept things gratefully for which one ought to be gratefull everyday.

The Shinto-Shusei Sect

Kunimitsu Nitta (1829-1902) was the founder. According to its tenets, the great source of the Way issues from the three Gods: Amenominakanushi - no - kami, Takaminusubi-no-kami, and Kamimusubi-no-kami. All human beings get their spirits originally from these Gods, and therefore our spirits essentially as pure and as good even as the Gods themselves must be lovingly cherished and preserved. In order to do this, a doctri e is needed, which will keep our spirits under descipline, that is, well in order and perfect.

The Taisha Sect.

This was revived through the efforts of Sompuku Senke (1845-1918), and teaches to revere and observe the divine will of the God Okuninushi, whose ideas of administration and spirituality constitute the Great Way of the Gods. When this is elucidated and the heavenly nature of the people is preserved, one's duty to the state is fulfilled, and all are good, law-abiding citizens.

The Fuso Sect.

The founder was Takekuni Fujiwara (1541-1646), and the one who furthered it was Han Shishino. The chief doctrine is to worship the spiritual virtues of the Gods Amenominakanushi, Takamimusubi, and Kamimusubi, and to discipline oneself in the Great Way of the Gods.

The Taisei Sect.

Seisai Hirayama (1815-90) was its founder. To enhance the Great Way of the Gods and to lead the masses along the path of goodness is the main teaching.

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Its tenets read: 1. Worship the heavenly Gods and the earthly Gods, pay homage to the Imperial Sanctuary as well as to the August Spirits of the successive Emperors; 2. Reverencing the divine ordinances infinite as Heaven and Earth themselves, extend the national principle of this country; 3. Illustrate in practise the moral codes heavenly ordered; 4. Disciplining oneself in morality and truth, fix the basis of faith wherein one gains peace of mind; 5. Abiding in the One Truth which unifies the two realms of the Manifested and the Hidden, get enlightened on the reason of life and death; 6. Undertake scientific investigations and encourage various enterprises; 7. As regards the divine rites and ceremonial affairs follow the traditional standards which were bequeathed by the successive courts.

The Jikko Sect.

This Sect, founded by Hanamori Shibata (1809-90), makes it its principal teaching to enhance the Great Way of the Gods, which is to be put in practise in out everyday life. We read in its tenets: 1. Enhance the Great Way of the Gods; 2. Study the ceremonial codes of this Divine Land; and 3. Spread the doctrine original to this country.

The Shinshu Sect.

Masamochi Yoshimura (1839-1916) was the founder of this Sect. To worship the heavenly Gods and earthly Gods, to practise the divine rites according to the ceremonial codes of the successive courts as well as according to the formulas bequeathed by the family of Onakatomi, to enhance the Great Way of the Gods, —this is the main doctrine taught by Yoshimura.

The Mitake Sect.

Its teachings chiefly consist in following the Perfect Way of the Gods, to enhance the great principles of reverence to the Gods, honor to the Emperor, and patriotism, and to engage in mission work in accordance with the laws of the state. The chief Gods to whom worship is offered are Kunitokodachi - no - mikoto, Onamuchi-no-mikoto, and Sukunahikona-no-mikoto, and they are called the Great Gods of Mitake. Their spirits are reported to have incorporated themselves in Mount Mitake, which means literally the "honorable mountain," and on which the Gods taught mankind the arts of medicine and magic. The origin of the Sect is considered to be in this legend.

The Misogi Sect.

The founder was Masakane Inouye (1790-1849). This Sect is an extension of the Shinto doctrine which teaches pruification and keeping evils away. These two things are divine deeds which originated with the Gods Izanagi and Susanowo.

The Shinri Sect.

The founder was Tsunehiko Sano (1834-1906). In his exposition of the ancestral doctrine, he urges us to honor the spirits of all the Heavenly Gods and the Natural reason inherent in all things, and thereby to find the way to faith.

The Konko Sect.

This was founded by Daijin Konko (1814-1883). The main teachings are to pay homage to the Gods heavenly and earthly, to elucidate the great principles of heaven and earth, to cherish patriotism, and to propagate the idea of oneness of this the other world, an faith in reason of life and death.

The Tenri Sect.

A Woman called Miki Nakayama (1798-1887) founded this Sect. According to her teachings, the Gods are to be revernced, patriotism is to be encouraged. Heavenly Reason and Humanity to be elucidated, the Emperor to be honored, and the Imperial ordinances to be obeyed. It lays great emphasis on practical discipline, and eight forms of duty are to be swept away, which are: 1. Grudging, (when duty requires one to give up life or property one may feel reluctant to do so—this is grudging); 2. Desiring; 3. Impure Attachment; 4. Hatred; 5. Enmity; 6. Anger; 7. Covetousness; and 8. Arrogance.

CHAPTER III

It was in the thirteenth year of the Emperor Kimmei (552 A.D.) that Budd-

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hism, first founded in India, came over to Japan after passing throught China and Korea. The devotion of Prince Shotoku at the time gave a great impetus to its propagation throughout the country. Six schools of Buddhism, that is, Sanron, Hosso, Jojitsu, Kusha, Ritsu, and Kegon were intreduced one after another. Under the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (782-805 A.D.), Tendai and Shingon flourished. New schools such as Jodo, Zen, Shin, Nichiren and others then gradually developed. Through these long periods of its history, Buddhism further differentiated itself, owing to differences in the exposition of the doctrines and in the methods of propagation, into many subsect. Eleven of the principal Sect still in existence are Hosso, Kegon, Ritsu, Tendai, Shingon, Yudzunembutsu, Jodo, Shin, Ji, Zen, and Nichiren; and these eleven are subdivided into fifty-eight Branches.

The Hosso Sect.

This Sect was introduced to Japan by Dosho (628-700), a Buddhist priest who went to China in 653 and studied the teachings of this Sect under Hsuan-tsang. The main teachings of Hosso are that all sentient beings are saved in accordance with their differences in character and endowments, of which five *Yanas* are to be distinguished, that the doctrinal system of this Sect and its Scriptural texts are in full correspondence with the truth, that as all things are merely manifestations of pure consciousness, there are no real ego-souls and no real objects, and that the great fruit of Bodhi and Nirvana is attainable in and through the reality of the Middle Path which is neither existent nor non-existent.

The three Head-temples of this Sect are all in Nara Prefecture, which are Kofukuji, Horyuji and Yakushiji.

The Kegon Sect.

Roben (688-773) of Todaiji, Nara, was the first propagator of this Sect in Japan, who learned it from the Chinese Buddhist priest Dokei visiting Japan during the Tempyo era (729-749). Its teachings are founded upon the Kegon Sutra. According to it, the ultimate reason of Suchness is absolute and infinite; the Ultimate and the Manifested too is so thoroughly and intermingly related to another Manifested that between the two there are no walls of individual separation. The teachings of the Sect are, therefore, called the Perfect Doctrine. Those who, in accordance with the doctrine, understand the mystery of the mutual evolution of the spiritual cosmos, and who practise goodness and are guarded in their conduct, are sure to attain Buddhahood and to realize the Ultimate Reason.

The Head-temple of this Sect is Todaiji in the city of Nara.

The Ritsu Sect.

The Ritsu or the Sect of moral discipline (Vinaya in Sanskrit) was first propagated in Japan by Ganjin (686-763), a Chinese Buddhist priest, who came to Japan during the Tempyo era (729-749). It obtains its name from the Vinaya-pitaka, according to which its followers strictly regulate the daily conduct. It teaches to observe, as ordered by Buddha, all the precepts (sila in Sanskrit) such as the Five Precepts, the Eight Precepts, the Six Novitiate Precepts, the Ten Precepts, or the Two Hundred and Fifty Precepts.

Toshodaiji in Nara Prefecture is the Head-temple of this Sect.

The Tendai Sect.

The founder of this Sect was Chisha Daishi (537-597) of the Sui dynasty. A Japanese priest Saicho (Dengyo Daishi, 766-822) went over to China in the year 782 during the Yenryaku era, and studied the principles of Tendai there. When he came back to Japan, he became its chief exponent here. Its teachings are comprised in two divisions, metaphsics and meditation. The metaphysical part critically systematizes all the teachings of Shakyamuni, discriminating what is mere expedient from what really represents the spirit of the founder of Buddhism. As the result Tendai has come to consider the Saddharma-Pundarika Sutra (that is, The

(*To be Continued*)

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The Educational System of Japan

II

Girls' High Schools of Four Years' Term

Lesson.	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
Ethics	2	2	1	1
Japanese Language	6	6	5	5
Foreign Language	3	3	3	3
History and Geography	3	3	2	2
Mathematics	2	2	3	3
Science	2	2	3	3
Drawing	1	1	1	0
Domestic Science	0	0	2	4
Sewing	4	4	4	4
Music	2	2	1	0
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3
Total.	28	28	28	28

Girls' High Schools of Three Years' Term

Lesson	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Ethics	2	2	1
Japanese Language	5	5	5
Foreign Language	3	3	3
History and Geography	2	2	2
Mathematics	2	2	2
Science	3	3	3
Drawing	2	1	0
Domestic Science	0	2	4
Sewing	4	4	4
Music	2	1	1
Gymnastics	3	3	3
Total	28	28	28

The foreign language is English or French.

The lessons in foreign languages, drawing and music may be dispensed with.

Lessons on education, legislation and economy, handicraft, commerce or other items may be added to the above schedule, according to the circumstances of the locality, when the weekly lesson hours may be increased.

No foreign language, drawing or music being assigned, the hours must be applied to other lessons.

The practical course of high girls' schools has the following lessons and lesson hours:—

Practical Course of Four Years' Term

Lesson	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
Ethics	2	2	1	1
Japanese Language	6	6	5	5
History and Geography	2	2	2	0
Mathematics	2	2	2	3
Science and Domestic Science	3	3	3	4
Sewing	8	8	8	8
Drawing	1	1	1	0
Singing	1	1	1	0
Commerce	0	0	2	4
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3
Total	28	28	28	28

Practical Course of Three Years' Term

Lesson	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Ethics	2	1	1
Japanese Language	6	4	4
History and Geography	2	2	0
Mathematics	2	2	2
Science and Domestic Science	3	4	4
Sewing	8	8	10
Drawing	1	1	0
Singing	1	1	0
Industry	0	2	4
Gymnastics	3	3	3
Total	28	28	28

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Practical Course of Two Years' Term

Lesson	1st Year	2nd Year
Ethics	1	1
Japanese Language	4	4
History and Geography	0	0
Mathematics	2	1
Science and Domestic Science	4	5
Sewing	10	10
Drawing	1	0
Singing	1	0
Industry	2	4
Gymnastics	3	3
Total	28	28

There is no lesson on science given in the practical course of two years' term.

Drawing, singing and industry may be dispensed with according to circumstances.

Education, legislation and economy, handicraft or other lessons may be added according to the circumstances of the locality.

On the Tokyo Streets.

In other items, the rules of the ordinary course of girls' high schools apply correspondingly to them.

The practical course of the three years' term, the first year of which admits graduates of higher primary schools or those possessing at least the same proficiency as such graduates, may properly fix lessons and weekly lesson hours, according to those of the practical course of two years' term, with the approval of the Minister of Education.

Girls' high schools have made marked development of late with the general recognition of their importance equally with middle schools. At the end of March, 1923, there were 628 of them in Japan, which work out at 4.2 schools per 1,000 square miles on an average. Not a few of them have postgraduate and higher courses. The following table shows their number and their pupils:—

Year.	No. of Girls' High Schools.	No. of Pupils.
1923	628	—
1922	580	176,759
1921	514	151,288
1920	462	131,711
1919	420	118,746
1918	395	109,857
1917	378	101,965
1916	366	95,949
1915	346	90,009
1914	330	83,287

3. Industrial Schools.—The school imparts knowledge and ability necessary for various kinds of industry. It is different in organization according to the kind of industry and occupation and to the condition of the locality. Its term is three to five years for those, which admit common primary school graduates or those at least equal in proficiency and age to them for their first year class and is two to four years for those, which admit

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higher primary school graduates or those at least equal in proficiency and age to them for their first year class. It is allowed to extend these terms for not more than one year, when it is necessary. Arrangements may be made specially for those, who wish to learn a part of the lessons, those who wish to study or practise even after graduation, those who wish to receive continuation education, those graduates of middle or girls' high schools, who wish to study lessons on industry and those who wish to study the lessons simply in a short term.

Industrial schools have made rapid progress as a result of the general recognition of their necessity along with industrial development and especially under encouragement given officially to this kind of education by reforming and completing the system and equipment. On March 31st, 1923, there were 711 industrial schools in Japan, which work out at 4.8 schools per 1,000 square miles. The number of pupils increased greatly in proportion. The following table denotes the number of industrial schools and of their pupils since 1914:—

Year	Number of Industrial Schools	Number of their Pupils
1923	711	—
1922	692	149,970
1921	676	136,290
1920	633	124,392
1919	608	113,814
1918	593	106,791
1917	572	99,952
1916	548	93,736
1915	541	87,397
1914	530	80,922

4. Industrial Supplementary Schools.—The school gives vocational knowledge and ability to those primary school graduates, who wish to follow a profession and receive education necessary for the national life. Its term is divided into two parts, the first and second terms, the former being two years and the latter two or three years, according to lessons taught. The lesson-hours for each school year are 200-420 hours for the first term and 160-420 hours for the second term. The school admits common primary school graduates or those who are the same in proficiency with them, for the first term, and for the second term, those finishing the first term course or higher primary school graduates or those who are the same in proficiency with them.

The school may have either the first term course or the second term course only, according to the condition of the locality and may have a higher course for those finishing the second term course. There is also a way open for higher industrial supplementary schools to be established for giving higher technical education, if it is necessary. The following table shows the number of industrial supplementary schools and of their pupils since 1913:—

Year	No. of Industrial Supplementary Schools	No. of Pupils
1922	14,839	995,532
1921	14,232	996,090
1920	13,334	912,156
1919	12,213	812,935
1918	10,781	677,347
1917	9,697	577,750
1916	8,908	498,118
1915	8,343	444,844
1914	8,014	384,983
1913	7,386	346,767

Secondary education is given to boys and girls to develop society, the industrial secondary educational system being established for helping in industrial development. Middle schools for boys are under a uniform system to meet practical necessity and for satisfactory connection with higher schools. For female and industrial education, it is allowed to vary the organization according to local conditions or other circumstances. So much has been the love of learning among the people that these schools have proved inadequate to satisfy the applicants for admission, who are increassing more rapidly out of proportion to the increase and extension of the schools.

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Japan's Oversea Trade

By S. MATSUMURA

Director of the Department of Agriculture and Commerce

THE oversea trade of Japan has made striking development during the past decade. Returns show that in 1913, it amounted to 1,361,000,000 yen, comprising 729,000,000 yen imports and 632,000,000 yen exports, a balance of 97,000,000 yen against us, and although both imports and exports fell off in 1914 due to the outbreak of the World War, yet they grew rapidly since then, until they stood at 4,272,000,000 yen in 1919, consisting of 2,173,000,000 yen imports and 2,099,000,000 yen exports with a balance of 74,000,000 yen against us. These figures for 1919 were unprecedentedly large and trebled the imports and exports of 1913.

A serious depression overtook the economic world at the beginning of 1920. This had a serious effect on our foreign trade, which sank abruptly through the slump of commodities, the inactivity of industry and the decline of purchasing capacity. The effect was severer in 1921, when the imports and exports amounted only to 1,614,000,000 yen and 1,253,000,000 yen respectively, the former a loss of 25.7 per cent. and the latter of 40.3 per cent. from 1919. Later, it picked up. In 1923, it amounted to 3,435,000,000 yen, including 1,987,000,000 yen imports and 1,448,000,000 yen exports with a balance of 539,000,000 yen against us.

The figures were less than those for 1919, the most prosperous year, but gained 23.1 per cent. and 15.5 per cent. over the imports and exports of 1921, a waning year, respectively. Again, the figures were 270 per cent. and 230 per cent. of the imports and exports for the year just preceding the war, respectively. The export trade for 1923 was, however, disproportionately small to the imports, owing to the great earthquake.

The following table exhibits the value of the foreign trade of Japan for the past eleven years:—

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Balance.
1913...	729,431,644	632,460,213	96,971,431 Im.
1914...	595,735,725	591,101,461	4,634,264 „
1915...	532,449,938	708,306,997	175,857,059 Ex.
1916...	756,427,910	1,127,468,118	371,040,208 „
1917...	1,035,811,107	1,603,005,048	567,193,941 „
1918...	1,668,143,833	1,962,100,668	293,956,835 „
1919...	2,173,459,880	2,098,872,617	74,587,263 Im
1920...	2,336,174,781	1,948,394,611	387,780,170 „
1921...	1,614,154,832	1,252,837,715	361,317,117 „
1922...	1,890,308,332	1,637,451,818	252,856,414 „
1923...	1,987,063,000	1,447,749,000	539,314,000 „

"Im" means an excess of imports over exports and "Ex" that of exports over imports.

The earthquake in Tokyo and vicinity in September last dealt a serious blow to Japanese industry besides unparalleled damage to life and property. Moreover, it lay waste Yokohama, the biggest port of Japan. This hindered greatly the export trade, while the import trade was very brisk with articles for relief and reconstruction purposes coming in floods, free of duty. In the meantime, both the Government and people acted properly and timely in concert in meeting the great calamity, thanks to which the export trade revived steadily.

The following table gives a comparison of the monthly amount of our foreign trade from September, 1923 to March, 1924 with that for the corresponding months of 1922-1923:—

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(In Thousands of Yen)

	1923	1922	Change Amount	Change Proportion Per Cent.	1921
September:					
Imports...	82,618	135,132	52,514 Dec.	38.9 Dec.	129,166
Exports...	74,809	149,981	75,172 „	50.1 „	95,842
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	7,809 Im.	14,849 Ex.			33,322 Im.
October:					
Imports...	144,545	106,686	37,859 Inc.	35.5 Inc.	130,374
Exports...	136,837	161,939	25,102 Dec.	15.5 Dec.	111,596
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	7,708 Im.	55,253 Ex.			18,778 Ex.
November:					
Imports...	156,664	116,875	39,789 Inc.	34.0 Inc.	151,955
Exports...	119,901	140,473	20,572 Dec.	14.7 Dec.	121,288
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	36,763 Im.	23,598 Ex.			30,667 Im.
December:					
Imports...	177,516	144,160	33,356 Inc.	23.2 Inc.	161,439
Exports...	146,520	158,447	11,927 Dec.	7.5 „	146,070
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	30,996 Im.	14,287 Ex.			15,369 Im.
Total (Sept-Dec.):					
Imports...	561,343	502,853	58,490 Inc.	11.6 Inc.	572,934
Exports...	478,067	610,840	132,773 Dec.	21.7 Dec.	474,797
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	83,276 Im.	107,987 Ex.			98,137 Im.
January:					
Imports...	214,210	149,529	64,681 Inc.	43.3 Inc.	178,806
Exports...	110,733	95,311	15,422 „	16.2 „	87,271
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	103,477 Im.	54,218 Im.			91,535 Im.
February:					
Imports...	294,114	156,287	137,827 Inc.	88.2 Inc.	197,542
Exports...	105,366	122,921	17,555 Dec.	14.3 Dec.	101,420
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	188,748 Im.	33,366 Im.			96,122 Im.
March:					
Imports...	305,536	198,065	107,471 Inc.	54.3 Inc.	207,344
Exports...	120,075	121,290	1,215 Dec.	1.0 Dec.	114,978
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	185,461 Im.	76,775 Im.			92,366 Im.
Total (January-March):					
Imports...	813,860	503,881	309,979 Inc.	61.5 Inc.	583,692
Exports...	336,174	339,522	3,348 Dec.	1.0 Dec.	303,669
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	477,686 Im.	164,359 Im.			280,023 Im.
Grand Total (September-March):					
Imports...	1,375,203	1,006,734	368,469 Inc.	36.6 Inc.	1,156,626
Exports...	814,241	950,362	136,121 Dec.	14.3 Dec.	778,466
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	560,962 Im.	56,372 Im.			378,160 Im.

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From the above figures, it may be seen that compared with the corresponding months of 1922-1923, the imports increased largely every month, except in September, 1923, when they decreased 38 per cent., with the maximum increase of 88 per cent. in February and the minimum increase of 23 per cent. in December, while on the other hand the exports fell off every month, except January, when they gained 16 per cent., with the maximum decrease of 50 per cent. in September and the minimum decrease of 1 per cent. in March, the grand total for the seven months showing an increase of 36 per cent. in imports and a decrease of 14 per cent. in exports.

Such a rapid growth of the import trade was caused by the importation of goods being expedited to bring them in while the temporary suspension of the import tariff was in force, up to April 1st.

In the period from September, 1923 to February, 1924, iron (bar, rod, sheet, plate, wire, tube and pipe) increased 42,850,000 yen, or 130 per cent. over the same interval, 1922-1923, claiming the first position among the goods that increased. Next comes wheat with the increase of 34,140,000 yen, or 300 per cent., followed by cleaned and uncleaned rice with the increase of 12,100,000 yen, or 140 per cent., soja beans with that of 9,530,000 yen, or 62 per cent., parts of automobiles with that of 5,410,000 yen, or 209 per cent., automobiles with that of 4,500,000 yen, or 468 per cent., cotton yarns with that of 3,440,000 yen, or 1,246 per cent., window glass with that of 3,300,000 yen, or 206 per cent., pine, fir, and cedar with that of 3,130,000 yen, or 172 per cent., and woolen cloths and other woolen fabrics with that of 3,010,000 yen, or 13 per cent.

The following table denotes the most valuable goods imported on the free list in the period from September 1st, 1923 to February 29th, 1924 and a comparison with the same interval, 1922-1923:—

(In Thousand of Yen)

Goods	Sept., 1923-Feb., 1924	Sept., 1922-Feb., 1923	Change Amount	Change Proportion
Cleaned and Uncleaned Rice	20,741	8,640	12,101 Inc.	140.0 Inc.
Wheat	45,321	11,181	34,140 „	300.5 „
Soja Beans	24,749	15,219	9,530 „	62.6 „
Fowl and Meat Canned or Potted	2,347	2,890	543 Dec.	18.7 Dec.
Condensed Milk	3,687	2,366	1,321 Inc.	55.5 Inc.
Volatile Oil	6,446	5,033	1,413 „	28.0 „
Drugs and Chemicals	1,834	5,811	3,977 Dec.	67.4 Dec.
Cotton Yarns	3,716	276	3,440 Inc.	124.63 Inc.
Woollen Cloths, Serges and Other Woollen Fabrics	25,854	22,840	3,014 „	13.2 „
Blankets	1,072	314	758 „	241.4 „
Paper (Writing and Wall)	1,181	866	315 „	36.3 „
Iron (Bar, Rod, Sheet, Plate, Wire, Tube and Pipe)	75,592	32,742	42,850 „	130.8 „
Rails	5,783	6,527	744 Dec.	11.3 Dec.
Building Materials (1)	2,438	1,584	854 Inc.	53.9 Inc.
Telegraphic and Telephone Apparatus and Parts Thereof	683	387	296 „	76.4 „
Mechanic Tools, Agricultural Implements and Parts Thereof	1,435	1,055	380 „	36.1 „
Stoves and Radiators	1,146	590	556 „	94.3 „
Meters	1,778	2,322	544 Dec.	23.4 Dec.
Glass	5,044	1,645	3,399 Inc.	206.6 Inc.
Automobiles (2)	5,462	961	4,501 „	468.3 „
Parts of Automobiles	8,002	2,583	5,419 „	209.6 „
Sewing Machines and Parts Thereof	5,285	3,119	2,166 „	69.4 „
Pine Fir and Cedar Not More Than 56 Millimetres in Thickness	4,951	1,814	3,137 „	172.9 „
Tard Felts	653	270	383 „	141.8 „

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(1) includes fish-plates and other railway building materials, and house, bridge and dock building materials, gas-holders, liquid tanks and parts thereof.

(2) include cars other than trucks under reduced duty.

During the past three years, oil cake, lumber, wool, woolen fabrics, peas and beans, sulphate of ammonia and coal increased yearly, while a comparative few, machinery, sugar, etc. were on the decrease. Raw cotton, iron, wheat, woolen fabrics, cleaned and uncleaned rice, and crude rubber increased, generally.

The following table exhibits the value of these staple imports for the past three years:—

(In Thousands of Yen)

Goods	1923	1922	1921
Raw Cotton	513,073	427,836	438,172
Iron (Pig, Ingot, Bar, Rod, Sheet, Plate, Wire, Tupe and Pipe)	121,771	153,883	145,118
Machinery	103,940	114,496	119,882
Oil Cake	109,646	98,521	94,311
Lumber	89,529	84,825	43,476
Wool	81,893	55,360	32,202
Woolen Yarn	73,826	48,471	15,173
Sugar	52,629	63,937	69,815
Peas and Beans	50,367	39,605	24,691
Wheat	47,480	58,901	31,551
Woolen Fabrics	47,098	50,044	31,084
Cleaned and Uncleaned Rice	31,349	61,328	28,813
Sulphate of Ammonia	24,947	11,237	11,006
Coal	24,365	16,819	14,093
Crude Rubber	19,327	11,311	15,724
Copper	?	14,969	8,408

Turning to the export trade cotton fabrics, earthen and porcelain wares, hosiery manufactures, marine products, iron wares, peas and beans only were on the increase, and raw silk, silk fabrics, teas, and braids for hat making show more or less gain, but coal, paper, lumber, and matches decreased remarkably, cotton yarns, refined sugar, machinery, waste and floss silks, glass and glass manufactures had some ups and downs.

Appended is the value of these staple exports for the past three years:—

(In Thousands of Yen)

Goods	1923	1922	1921
Raw Silk	568,370	671,365	417,124
Cotton Fabrics	234,499	222,145	203,673
Silk Fabrics	92,369	107,930	89,935
Cotton Yarn	78,613	114,725	80,568
Earthen and Porcelain Wares	23,465	21,214	20,791
Coal	21,545	23,520	37,814
Hosiery Manufactures	21,205	17,660	12,892
Marine Products	21,020	18,521	14,569
Teas	16,010	17,826	7,718
Paper	15,233	16,141	18,939
Refined Sugar	14,742	19,127	15,799
Lumber	12,342	14,203	15,326
Iron Manufactures	11,476	10,499	9,112
Machinery	10,904	15,252	12,883
Matches	10,649	15,556	16,239
Waste and Floss Silks	10,463	14,514	10,367
Glass and Glass Manufactures	10,145	10,317	9,997
Braids for Hat Making	9,982	11,294	7,031
Peas and Beans	7,444	7,149	4,036

Japan's oversea trade was on the way to recovery since 1921, when it was at the bottom, until last year, when the great earthquake occurred, giving a severe blow to the export trade and producing a great excess of imports over exports. This has been a temporary phenomenon, and in fact, the modern trade and industry of Japan have made marked progress with the industrial organization bettered and the industrial products improved. The Japanese Government and people are co-operating energetically in fostering this tendency.

A moon-lit eve
A Glimpse of sea
[Through] the summer grove.

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The Marine Products Industry of Japan*

THE Empire of Japan, east of the Continent of Asia, is sea girt in all directions, except in the north of Korea, where it borders on China and Russia. The southern extremity of her territories lies at lat. 21° 45' N., at the southern end of Formosa the northern extremity at lat. 50° 56' N. at the northern end of the Kurile Islands, the eastern extremity at long. 156° 20' E. at the eastern end of the Kurile Island and the western extremity at long. 119° 18' E. at the west end of the Pescadores. There are numerous islands scattered over these territorial waters. Her Kurile Islands belong to the frigid zone and her Pescadores to the tropical zone. She has the shape of a long serpent and is narrow in width. Her coast line is very long for her area of land, and extends over 7,423 "ri", or about 15,000 miles of which 5,524 "ri" belongs to Japan proper and 1,889 "ri" to her territories. There are many good harbours along the coasts, into which empty numerous rivers.

Warm and cold currents flow in the adjacent Japanese waters, the former being the Japan sea current commonly known as the Black Stream and the latter the Kurile and Riman currents.

A great variety of fish inhabit the seas, and shell fish and seaweed abound everywhere off the coasts. Japan has naturally advanced in marine productions as the wealth of her waters has developed since ancient times, and it claims a very important position among her industries. The Japanese get albumen for their food mainly from marine products, in which respect the latter is equally important as rice for them.

The following tables will serve to show how Japan's marine products industry stands:—

*This article is based on official information and statistics obtained from the Marine Products Bureau.

Fishers and Fishing Boats:

Year	Fishers No.	Fishing Boats With Motor No.	Fishing Boats Without Motor No.	Fishing Boats Total No.
1915...	1,376,750	2,516	393,073	395,589
1916...	1,365,954	2,800	391,901	394,701
1917...	1,394,479	2,978	384,242	387,220
1918...	1,390,625	3,266	381,854	385,120
1919...	1,365,458	4,032	380,577	384,609
1920...	1,335,555	5,785	377,780	383,565
1921...	1,391,871	6,217	375,983	382,200

The number of fishers in 1921 includes fishers, manufacturers and those engaged in the rearing of fish.

Catches:

Year	Littoral Fishery Yen	Pelagic Fishery Yen	Total Yen
1913 ...	95,065,000	18,575,000	113,640,000
1914 ...	95,053,000	16,880,000	111,933,000
1915 ...	94,836,004	20,207,352	115,043,356
1916 ...	102,242,143	22,527,412	124,769,555
1917 ...	123,233,429	32,751,664	155,985,093
1918 ...	171,185,081	53,600,648	224,785,729
1919 ...	246,833,674	54,086,176	300,919,850
1920 ...	270,294,228	64,898,787	335,193,015
1921 ...	258,226,053	74,087,842	332,313,896

Production:

Year	Amount Yen
1907	39,267,195
1908	35,491,742
1909	35,230,546
1910	38,506,167
1911	41,559,106
1912	49,253,111
1913	51,726,574
1914	52,174,902
1915	54,809,362
1916	63,999,501
1917	84,543,653
1918	112,263,553
1919	164,378,370
1920	149,521,516
1921	169,598,117

Fish Culture:

Year	Nurseries No.	Area "Tsubo"	Products Yen
1907 ...	27,592	81,766,096	2,823,263
1908 ...	30,109	91,418,477	2,873,177
1909 ...	47,295	106,314,806	3,027,430
1910 ...	55,604	107,664,636	3,808,028
1911 ...	68,715	138,907,568	3,676,921
1912 ...	71,369	120,081,907	4,106,986
1913 ...	73,288	147,006,989	4,150,786
1914 ...	84,604	142,884,843	4,087,228
1915 ...	96,230	168,016,480	4,555,043
1916 ...	104,529	173,523,625	5,238,588
1917 ...	106,855	185,851,648	6,388,021
1918 ...	104,299	178,435,755	8,262,092
1919 ...	102,065	183,837,259	11,500,592
1920 ...	102,488	169,943,066	13,283,372
1921 ...	105,530	199,209,513	19,671,585

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Herring, sardines, sea-beam, bonito, yellow-tails, mackerel, tunnies, halibut, horse-mackerel and cod-fish in salt water and salmon, trout and sweet-fish in fresh water form the principal fishes taken in the littoral fisheries. Besides, lobsters, sea-cars and "konbu" may be counted among the former group.

To classify these fishes according to districts, the Pacific coast is very long with the east coast of the mainland and Shikoku and Kyushu, and it is the most important Japanese fishing ground. Here are taken chiefly bonito, tunnies, sardines, sea-beam and mackerel, and the bays and inlets abound in shell fish and edible sea-weed.

The Japan Sea products are principally sardines, mackerel, yellow-tails, cod-fish, etc. Sardines, mackerel and yellow-tails come in abundantly to the part south of the centre, where their take is very large, although shell fish and edible sea-weed are relatively small.

In the direction of Hokkaido, we have herring, salmon, trout and "konbu" as the chief products, quite different from the other waters.

In the south the varieties are comparatively few but large quantities are taken.

The fishing implements and methods employed in the littoral fisheries are very much and the principal of them are gill nets, draw nets, purse seines, set nets, angling by hand line, long lines, etc.

In 1907, the products of littoral fishery amounted to 62,000,000 yen, and the value more than doubled in 1921, when it amounted to 258,000,000 yen, the average yearly increase being 13,900,000 yen.

Pelagic fishery was started only recently, when fur-seal hunting took the lead. In March, 1897, the Pelagic Fishery Encouragement Law was promulgated. Since then, fur-seal hunting has made steady headway. The number of sealers was only 9 the year before the issue of the law, but it grew to 50 in 1911, when the take reached the value of 700,000 or 800,000 yen.

In the meantime, the Government considered means to protect the seals in co-operation with the English, American and Russian Governments, and vetoed hunting for the period of 15 years beginning December 15, 1911 Simultaneously, it took important measures for encouraging fishery, including the training of pelagic fishermen and the improvement of pelagic schooners. Consequently, pelagic fishery made strides, and different kinds were established one after another, such as whaling, trawling, long line fishing by engine boat cod-fish augting by hand line motor-boat fishing and improved disposal and carrying of the take.

At present, pelagic schooners number over 6,000, their yearly business amounting to upwards of 100,000,000 yen.

The above does not cover the colonial fishery carried on in Korea, Kwantung Province, Formosa, Karafuto and the mandatory South Sea Islands. Fishing in the Korean seas by the Japanese dates far back. It was greatly encouraged by the prefectures in Chugoku, Kyushu and other parts of Japan since 1895, and as a result 5,312 Japanese fishers settled in Korea in 1915, holding 1,263 fishing boats and catching fish valued at 2,150,000 yen. At the same time, there were 11,570 fishers going out from Japan with 2,843 boats and taking products valued at 3,837,000 yen. Since then, the settlers increased greatly and reached 13,710 in 1921 with 2,539 fishing boats and taking the value of 6,825,000 yen, which doubled or trebled the figures of 6 years previously, although the outgoing fishers did not increase so remarkably and stood at 10,147 with 2,375 fishing-boats and a take of 3,250,000 yen. The chief fish taken are sea-beam, halibut, mackerel, gray-mullet, sardines, hair-tails, etc., most of which are imported raw into Japan.

In 1921, there were 14,600 Korean fishing boats and 318,000 Korean fishers taking fish valued at about 100,000,000 yen. These figures indicate the considerable development attained by Korean fishery in recent years, thanks to constant efforts made to lead and encourage it; and it promises to become much more important in future.

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Fishing off Kwantung Province by the Japanese was started during the Japan-Russia War. In 1922, there were 178 fishing boats and 867 fishers going to that sea. Besides, the Japanese settlers numbered 148 living in 81 houses, bringing the total number of Japanese fishers engaged in the fishery up to 1,015. These men were chiefly from Kumamoto, Ehime, Oita and Kagawa Prefectures. The chief methods of fishing used there are sea-bream long line fishing, trawling, etc.

The yearly take comes to 384,000 "kwamme" valued at 567,000 yen, besides which the whales taken have the value of 150,000 yen. The chief fish caught there are sea-beam, halibut, "saba", "suzuki", "nibe", "kingashira", yellow-tails, sharks etc. The fishing implements and methods employed there are on too small a scale to ensure the steady development of the local fishery, which is at a low ebb. The local Chinese fishermen numbered 14,170, living in 7,064 houses in 1922, with 961 junks and 4,019 small boats, their catch amounting to 2,550,000 "kwamme" valued at 1,193,000 yen.

In 1912, Formosa had 117,000 Japanese and native fishers with 9,450 fishing boats and taking products valued at 992,000 yen. In 1921, the fishers increased to 118,800, the fishing boats to 8,970 and the catch to 5,943,000 yen. The number of Japanese employed in the local fishery increased steadily, while the native fishers remained nearly unchanged in number. The Japanese began fishing there after the Japan-China War in 1894-1895, and increased to 133 in 1900, to 234 in 1907, to 917 in 1912, to 1,932 in 1916 and to 2,497 in 1921, which is eleven times as much as the figure of 15 years ago and nineteen times as much as the figure of 20 years ago. At the same time, the catch trebled in five years and sextupled in ten years. The principal fish taken are sea-beam, sardines, bonito, sharks, tunnies, mackerel, horse-mackerel, etc.

The Japanese had been interested in fishery off the coast of Karafuto much earlier than the conclusion of the agreement for the exchange of the Kurile Islands and Karafuto in 1875, and the number increased markedly since a part of the island passed into Japanese possession as a result of the Japan-Russia War. In 1922, the Japanese engaged in fishing there numbered 3,350 with 11,800,000 yen value of the take, nearly double the figure of a decade before. The stationary fishing of herring is most important there, and salmon, codfish, trout, crab, halibut and "konbu" (sea-weed) come next.

The mandatory South Sea Islands have territorial waters of 2,000 nautical miles east and west and of 1,000 nautical miles south and north, and tunnies, bonito and other fish abundantly migrate there. There are no exact returns available as yet regarding the Japanese fisheries in those waters. Much may be hoped in this direction, for the Japanese Government is making energetic efforts to develope the fisheries there.

Japanese fishing off the coast of the Russian Maritime Province made steady headway after the conclusion of the Japanese-Russian Fishing Treaty in 1907. At present 300 or 400 fishing grounds are owned there by the Japanese, which produce 600,000 or 700,000 "koku" of fish valued at 30,000,000 or 40,000,000 yen. The number of fishing steamers increased steadily and stands now at 300 with the aggregate tonnage of 200,000. The fishermen number 20,000 and the capital invested amounts to 40,000,000 yen. The canning of salmon and trout was started there in 1910 and at present, it yearly comes to 15,000,000 yen in value. The canned crab industry has likewise made striking progress there since it was started in 1920, its yearly product being placed now at 1,500,000 yen. River and lake fishing there is no less important than the above two lines of canning, for the fishermen interested in it number over 100,000 and their yearly products reach 20,000,000 yen with prospects of increase year after year.

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Opera in Japan

I.

OPERA has become very popular in Japan. Granting that the Japanese opera singers have not had enough cultivation of their voices and the Japanese orchestra do not command distinguished talent or a sufficient number of musicians it is nevertheless true that the Japanese people nowadays have so far advanced as to know something about opera.

Japanese labourers, who have been accustomed to the native ballads of the "Yasuki-bushi" style, will now quite as easily sing "Carmen," "The Matador," etc. Young students hum snatches of the love-songs of Boccaccio as if they have heen familiar with them for years.

But the history of the development of opera in this country is a long one, the history of a train of obstacles that it had to encounter before it attained its present popularity.

In the summer of 1903, a number of students of the literature course in the Tokyo Imperial University together with a group of students of the Tokyo Music School staged for the first time Gluck's opera "Orpheus" at the Music-Hall of the latter school, under the efficient management of Mr. Perry of the Tokyo Music School and Dr. Kebel, the Professor of the Tokyo Imperial University, well-known as a musician among his many qualifications.

This German opera was in fact translated by Mr. Kosaburo Ishikura (now a High-School teacher), Mr. Saburo Otsukotsu (later, Professor of the Tokyo Music School, now defunct), Mr. Toyokichi Yoshida (now Professor of the Military Academy) and Mr. Itsugoro Kondo.

Miss Tamaki Shibata (as she then was), a student of the Music School played the part of Eurydice, and amazed the intellectual audience of Tokyo by her beautiful soprano voice and her personal beauty. Madame Tamaki, therefore, who has now achieved world-wide celebrity in the role of Madame Butterfly, was one of the first introducers of opera into this country. Thus in that year the first taste of Western opera music was enjoyed in Japan.

In 1904, Mr. Yasuharu Kitamura, an earnest advocate of bringing about harmony between Japanese and Western music, published his *A Dream in the Camp* opera, which was staged at the Kabuki Theatre. The plot was very simple. With the background of the Russo-Japanese war, a Japanese soldier was depicted dreaming of his mother at home. Koshiro Matsumoto, now one of the stars of Japan, personated the hero. But neither an orchestra was used nor was the plot attractive, so that it failed to satisfy the public and only added a little stimulus to the theatrical world of that day.

The next year saw the establishment of the Literary Society at the instance of Dr. Yuzo Tsubouchi, then Professor of the Waseda University, the eminent Shakespearean scholar, embracing in its membership graduates of that University, with the object of studying musical drama on

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its practical as well as theoretical side. This Society produced "Urashima," founded on the Japanese legend of Urashima Taro, a Rip-Van-Winklean fisherman. This legend resembles *Tannhauser* in plot.

This new play had undeniably the merit of magniloquent language, but the music demanded a grand setting, and was too complex, over-burdened with the elements of the native music and art of stagecraft. The music was composed by Messrs. Rokuzayemon Kineya and Kangoro Kineya, both first-class vocalists of the old style of singing, called "naga-uta," while the part of the hero was played by Mr. Kinsen Kubota, who had previously been painter, but had become an actor.

Dr. Tsubouchi wrote another opera, "Eternal Darkness," and put it on the stage. The plot was an adaptation from the Japanese myth relating to the withdrawal of the sun-goddess Amaterasu into a cave, in her indignation at outrages committed by her brother, thereby leaving the whole world in darkness. Thereupon, all the other gods and goddesses devised a plan for inducing the great goddess to come out, according to which they began dancing and singing, and thus succeeded in enticing her out, the world consequently being restored to light.

This play, containing as it does many elements of Western music, was superior to the previous one, as an opera. But it failed to produce a composite effect as a drama. The late Mr. Tetsuteki Togi, the famous court musician, acted in this play.

In 1906, Messrs. Gen-ichiro Yamada and Gyokugan Komatsu, both musicians, and Mr. Chikao Kobayashi, a special student of opera, organized an opera troupe, called the Music World Society and staged an opera in the Y.M.C.A. building in Tokyo. The performance was "Hagoromo" (Winged Robe) by Mr. Komatsu, based on an old Japanese legend, of a similar plot to the Swan Maiden. The music as well as the wording of this play were of pure simplicity, and thanks to the skilful acting of Yennosuke Ichikawa, the opera, though short and simple, produced a well-balanced effect. But, regrettably, owing to the consideration of expenses the hope of organizing an orchestra had to be abandoned and piano and organ were used instead.

The next year the same dramatic society staged the "Sacred Bell" by Mr. Kobayashi. Its music was composed by Mr. Gyokugan Komatsu. This play hinted back to an Indian legand. Together with this play, a piece by Gounod and the first scene from *Faust* were put on the stage by Mr. Takeshi Nagai. Mr. Nagai was the conductor of the Military Band, but not a professional vocalist. But being proficient in music, he charmed his audience by the unmolested freedom of his art. Margaret was personated by Miss Eastlake, daughter of the late Professor Eastlake. The music was played by the Military Band with good effect.

About this time the Imperial Theatre in Tokyo had been built, with Baron (now *Viscount*) Shibusawa as President of the company. At the instance of Mr. Nishino, managing director, an operatic orchestra was organized by the Theatre, which was a great step forward in the history of drama in this country. It included Miss Tamaki Shibata, Mr. Kintaro Shimizu and others while the or-

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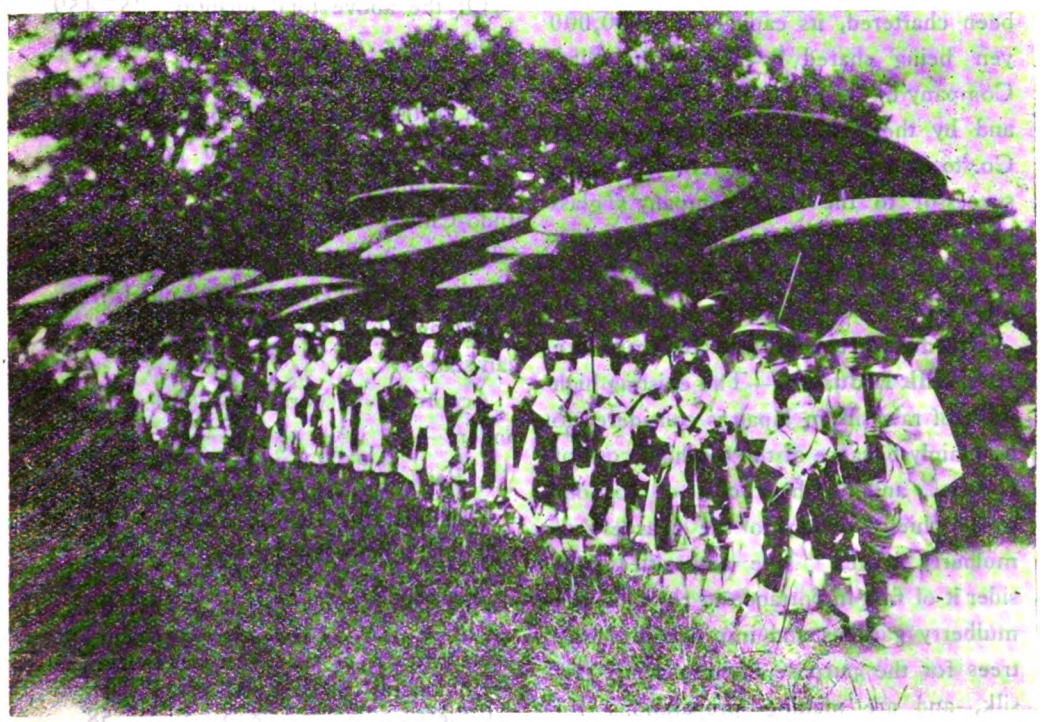
chestra was organized with about twenty members under the leadership of Mr. Heikichi Takeuchi.

In 1911, the opera "Yuya" was staged for the first time at the Imperial Theatre. The heroine, Yuya was a woman favoured by Munemori Taira, a famous nobleman in Japanese history. The purport of this opera is that Yuya, looking at the cherry-flowers in full splendour, recalls her lonely mother in her native-place, with a sudden impulse of fond affection, and Munemori touched by her emotion generously gives her leave of absence to visit her mother.

"Yuya" was written by Mr. Shoyo Matsui, the music was composed by Mr. Junker, Professor of the Tokyo Music School, who knew not a syllable of the Japanese language, and the gestures were taught by Mr. Umesuke Suzuki, who had once been an actor of the old school. The consequence was that the whole thing fell through, on account of unsystematic arrangement. Such a result was inevitable in view of the fact that a play of the old school was attempted with the formal accompaniment of singing, without producing any dramatic effect.

In the winter of the same year, Sig. Sarcoli, an Italian tenor, came to Japan. *Cavaleria Rusticana* was performed in Italian at the Imperial Theatre, in which the orchestra of the Theatre joined. Though the objection was raised that the Italian language was incomprehensible to the audience yet the performance was so well organized that it produced a tolerably good effect. This Italian musician's splendid talent was gratefully appreciated in this country.

In 1912, Mr. Shoyo Matsui's "Sakyamuni," another opera, was put on the stage at the Imperial Theatre. The score was by Mr. Werkmeister, Professor of the Tokyo Music School, whose ignorance of the Japanese language brought about its failure, marring the effect of the Indian atmosphere which otherwise might have been produced. Mr. Kintaro Shimizu played the leading part.



Procession of the Young Children on the Buddhist Festival Day.

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Commercial Intelligence

Foreigh Trade of Japan. — For May, 1925, the foreign trade of Japan amounted in value to 170,464,000 yen for exports and 204,673,000 yen for imports, making the total of 375,137,000 yen and showing the balance of 34,209,000 yen against us. The total since January was brought up to 802,407,000 yen for exports and to 1,298,516,000 yen for imports, making the grand total of 2,100,923,000 yen and showing the balance of 496,109,000 yen against us. As compared with the same interval, 1924, the exports show the gain of 139,967,000 yen and the imports that of 7,710,000 yen.

Glass Works in Manchuria.—The Manchurian Plate Glass Co. Ltd. has been chartered, its capital of 3,000,000 yen being shared by the Asahi Glass Company to the extent of 1,800,000 yen and by the South Manchurian Railway Co. to that of 1,200,000 yen. It is the successor to the latter company's glass industry, and the yearly capacity of 70,000 tons is being extended to 330,000 tons.

Fundamental Means to Improve Raw Silk Industry.—The existing high price of raw silk in Japan is considered to be mainly because of the too high cost of cocoons, and the high cost of cocoons to be chiefly owing to the dearness of mulberry leaves. The authorities consider it of first importance to re-adjust the mulberry gardens and improve mulberry trees for the purpose of improving raw silk, and are making preparations for drawing up plans for it.

Raw Cotton Imported in January-April.—The Tariff Section of the Department of Finance gives the importation of raw cotton into Japan in the first four months of 1925 as follows:—

Month.	Quantity Piculs	Value. 1,000 Yen	Average Price Per Picul Yen
January . .	915,281	80,724	88
February .	1,399,825	127,946	92
March . .	1,503,331	131,686	87
April . . .	1,397,933	122,060	87
Total .	5,224,370	462,416	89

As compared with the same interval, 1924, the above total quantity shows the gain of 1,173,064 piculs and the above total value that of 187,419,000 yen in value.

Of the above total quantity, 257,459 piculs were imported from China, 17 piculs from Kwantung, 2,876,647 piculs from British-India, 5,208 piculs from the Straits Settlements, 12,940 piculs from Dutch-Indies, 10,819 piculs from French Indo-China, 50 piculs from Siam, 1,939,583 piculs from the United States, 75 piculs from Peru, 120,342 piculs from Egypt and 1,230 piculs from other African states.

According to ports the figures are as under:—

Port.	Quantity. Piculs	Value. 1,000, Yen
Yokohama .	382,875	34,002
Kobe . . .	3,291,637	296,225
Osaka . . .	797,537	66,402
Nagasaki . .	50,051	4,102
Moji	163,521	15,063
Nagoya . .	163,484	14,243
Yokkaichi .	374,391	32,318
Others . . .	875	58
Total	5,224,370	462,416

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Luxury Goods—During the period of January-March, 1925, the luxury goods imported into Japan are given by the Department of Finance as 2,570,606 yen in value, consisting of 706,539 yen in January, 855,146 in yen February and 1,008,-921 yen in March. As compared with the seven months previous to the enforcement of the Luxury Bill, the importation of luxury articles into Yokohama during the eight months after that shows a remarkable decrease, for the amount was 5,720,000 yen for the latter period as against 8,900,000 yen for the former period, with the monthly average of 715,-000 yen and 1,272,000 yen respectively. Thus, the Luxury Bill had the effect of diminishing the importation of luxury goods in the period by 45 per cent. Of the goods imported, food stuffs and table-luxuries lost 58 per cent., toilet goods and their materials 34 per cent., textiles and their manufactures 15 per cent., personal ornaments and their accessories 8 per cent., articles for amusement 51 per cent., household furniture 54 per bent., precious metals and their manufactures 56 per cent. and other articles 52 per cent. Above all, gramaphones fell off 80 per cent., and black teas 70 per cent. and raw fruits, fruit juice, etc. were reduced to nothing. Those that increased were canned, bottled and potted fruits, which increased ten fold, gloves, which gained three fold, shawls, which increased two and a half, fur, skin and hoof manufactures, which rose two fold, and perfumed oils, which multiplied one and a half. Besides, soaps increased 40 per cent., fabrics interwoven with silk 15 per cent. and toys 7 per cent.

On the Tokyo Pavements.

Exportation of Raw Silk.—During the business year from June 1st, 1924 to May 31st, 1925, the exportation of raw silk was unprecedentedly great. The amount sold to the exporters in Yokohama was 563,437 boxes as against the past high record of 471,456 boxes in the business year of 1922-1923.

The Crop of Barley, Etc.—It is officially reported that the total planted area of barley, wheat and rye in Japan (excluding Niigata, Nagano, Miyagi, Fukushima, Iwate, Aomori, Yamagata, and Akita Prefectures and Hokkaido) is estimated at 1,308,783 *chobu*, consisting of 366,282 *chobu* of barley, 521,693*chobu* of rye and 420,808 *chobu* of wheat. As compared with 1924, barley shows a decrease of 169 *chobu* (0.1 per cent.), but rye increased 5,675 *chobu* (1.1 per cent.) and wheat 2,063 *chobu* (0 5 per cent.), the total increase being 7,569 *chobu* (0.6 per cent.). On the basis of the condition existing May 20th, the crop of barley, rye and wheat is estimated at

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18,547,320 *koku*, comprising 6,693,080 *koku* of barley, 6,697,050 *koku* of rye and 5,157,190 *koku* of wheat. When compared with the actual yield in 1924, barley shows the increase of 290,500 *koku* (4.5 per cent.), rye that of 1,184.-000 *koku* (21.5 per cent.) and wheat that of 416,400 *koku* (8.8 per cent,), the total increase being 1,891,000 *koku* (11.4 per cent.).

Artificial Pearls to be Conditioned.—Artificial pearls are made chiefly in Osaka and are exported to the yearly value of 12,000,000 yen. There are complaints made abroad of their deteriorated quality as a result of a reduction in price to meet the foreign competition in the American market. In order to prevent defective making, there is a proposal to condition them before exportation under Government rules.

Tariff Revision.—The Government has decided to submit a bill for a general revision of the import tariff in the next session of the Imperial Diet. The financial authorities are alleged to have the intention to thoroughly revise the tariff, adopting specific duties as far as possible.

Sericulture in 1924.—Official statistics show that in 1924, there were in Japan 1,890,166 silkworm rearers, gathering 9,311,270 silkworm eggs, consisting of 7,550,242 cards for the spring season and 9,311,270 cards for the summer and autumn season and producing 73,818,-442 *kwamme* of cocoons, comprising 39,478,760 *kwamme* of spring cocoons and 34,340,682 *kwamme* of summer and autumn cocoons. As compared with 1923, the number of silkworm rearers increased 28,103, or 1.5 per cent., the gathering of silkworm eggs decreased 293,220 cards, or 3.7 per cent. for the spring season and increased 133,378 cards, or 1.5 per cent. for the summer and autumn season, the total of both showing a loss of 159,842 cards, or 0.9 per cent,, and the production of cocoons fell off 458,340 *kwamme*, or 1.1 per cent. for the spring season, but gained 4,737,-036 *kwamme*, or 16 per cent. for the summer and autumn season, the total of both denoting an increase of 4,278,696 *kwamme*, or 6.2 per cent.

Interest Paid Abroad.—The yearly amount of interest and amortization payable on foreign loans, Government and private, is estimated at 101,800,000 yen, a very important item of Japan's international accounts.

National Debts Outstanding.—The Department of Finances reports the national bond outstanding at the end of April as 4,903,318,000 yen, consisting of 3,398,558,000 yen of domestic bonds and 1,505,760,000 yen of foreign bonds. Below are the details:—

(In Thousands of Yen)

Bonds.	Outstanding.
Domestic Bond:	
5% Bonds.	423,951
,, ,, (Special) . .	135,099
,, ,, ("Ko-Goh")	429,023
4% ,, (1st) . . .	171,100
,, ,, (2nd) . .	96,582
5% Exchequer Notes .	1,529,520
Railway Bills	79,999
Extra. Exchequer Notes.	533,280
Total.	3,398,558

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Foreign Bonds:	
1st 4% Sterling Bonds .	92,748
2nd ,, ,, ,, .	244,864
5% Sterling Bonds . .	224,543
4% French Bonds . .	172,180
3rd 4% Sterling Bonds .	107,392
6½% Dollar Bonds. .	294,036
6% Sterling Bonds . .	244,076
Late Rly. Co.s' Sterling Debentures. . . .	9,763
S. M. R. Co.'s Sterling Debentures. . . .	117,156
Total.	1,505,760
Grand Total. .	4,903,318

Specie Hold.—The Department of Finance reports that on April 30th, 1925, the specie hold amounted to 1,458,000,000 yen, a decrease of 9,000,000 yen from the figure at the end of March. Of this, 385,000,000 yen was owned by the Government and 1,073,000,000 yen by the Bank of Japan, 1,175,000,000 yen being held in Japan and 283,000,000 yen abroad.

Floatations and Extensions in May.—The Mitsui Bank reports that during May, 1925, the total amount of capital involved in floatations and extensions was 116,030,000 yen, of which 85,535,000 yen was for floatations, and 116,030,000 yen for extensions (the latter figure consisting of 69,452,000 yen capital and 46,678,000 yen debentures). The above total shows an increase of 25,220,000 yen over April, 1925 and of 136,705,000 yen over May, 1924. Following are the details:—

(In Thousands of Yen)

Companies.	Floated.	Extended
Banking	—	6,628
Trust.	400	10,000
Railway and Tramway	17,400	11,300
Marine Transport .	3,500	1,700
Insurance . . .	—	9,000
Warehousing . .	1,050	—
Fishery	1,300	—
Agricultural, Afforestation and Land	2,250	1,782
Mining	11,500	—
Electric	500	22,300
Spinning & Weavsing	—	30,300
Food-stuff . . .	3,340	16,100
Machinery and Metal Industries. .	2,230	3,000
Miscellaneous Industries . . .	7,640	1,770
Commercial . .	5,445	2,250
Others	28,960	—
Total . . .	85,535	116.130

Tramp Steamers.—The Kobe Marine Association reports the number of tramp steamers of not less than 2,000 D. W. tons, operating on May 20th as under:—

Service.	On May 20. Number.	On May 20. D. W. Tonnage.	Comp. with Apr. 20. Number.	Comp. with Apr. 20. D. W. Tonnage.
		1,000 Tons.		1,000 Tons.
European	30	269	— 7	— 64
North American Atlantic.	21	193	+ 3	+ 27
Japan-North American-Pacific.....	48	422	— 1	— 11
Australian ...	7	63	— 5	— 33
South Sea-Straits Settlements ...	63	401	—17	— 85
Coasting 1st Section	342	1,400	+25	+112
In Dock	20	112	— 5	— 26
Tied Up	6	34	— 3	— 10
Chartered by the Army ...	10	46	0	0
Other Steamers	20	160	+10	+ 92

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From the Japanese Press

Loan Policy. — Japanese national bonds having increased regularly since 1916, reach now 5,000,000,000 yen, consisting of 3,500,000,000 yen of domestic bonds and 1,500,000,000 yen of foreign bonds. When compared with a decade ago, the foreign bonds show a decrease, while the domestic bonds have increased some three fold. Local bonds have also been on the increase and stand now at about 800,000,000 yen, two and a half times as much as the figure a decade ago.

This great increase in public bonds is attributed by the *Osaka Mainichi* to a loose and positive policy taken by the Seiyu-kai Ministry, which long remained in power since the World War, making excessive appropriations for armament and railway expansion and general other objects by floating bonds, although local bonds were necessarily issued chiefly for meeting increased educational and public works expenditures. A further increase in public bonds will be unbearable to the nation.

The present Ministry adopted a non-loan policy at the beginning but the Finance Minister has recently intimated his intention to again float bonds, if it should be justified by the future condition of the money market, which is now abnormally dull. This the paper cannot recognize, for it means a change in the fundamental financial policy of the Ministry at the temporary easiness of money.

Interest shows a noteworthy tendency owards decline. This is, however, because of the re-adjustment of business and the shrinkage of credit and not owing to the repletion of private means. On the contrary, the tradal depression must be expected to be intensified hereafter. We must allow this unavoidable natural selection to take its full course, which will be a way to expedite recovery. It is useless to resort to any artificial means and to give a stimulant to the economic world at the present moment.

The floatation of national bonds during the Japan-Russia War and the World War expanded currency, inflated commodities and aroused speculation, for the issue of bonds created currency and expanded credit again by loaning on their security. For this reason, the resumption of the loan policy and bond issues will only tend to set back the financial re-adjustment of the present Ministry, and the paper wishes it not to be moved by some powerful financiers into an alteration in its old policy.

Our public finances are nearly in the same difficulty as private finances, but the former has more necessity of re-adjustment than the latter. The situation cannot be regulated simply by the adoption of a limited loan policy. But no fundamental financial improvement can be expected by such an unsteady policy taken as to be easily affected by a little advance in bonds or temporary monetary slackness of an abnormal nature.

Commerce with America. — For the United States, trade with Japan is not so important, but for Japan, trade with the United States is as valuable as with China, for she is the best customer of Japan's raw silk, which she is requiring more and more as she grows in wealth.

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In the past decade, Japan's trade with the United States increased five or six fold, surpassing by far the growth of her world's trade, which gained three or four fold. This is an evidence of the great augmentation in the American demand for raw silk and the Japanese consumption of raw cotton. Japan must develop her raw silk industry more and more so that she can supply to America better and cheaper goods enough to allow little room for artificial silk or Chinese silk to supplant it.

The *Osaka Mainichi* regrets to note, however, something in Japan's sericultural industry that makes its prospects not entirely rosy. Its trade system is unimproved. The number of sericulturists is only on the decrease and the production of cocoons shows no fair increase. Moreover, the American market, which purchases 80 per cent. of the amount exported from this country, holds control over the Japanese market. In addition to these circumstances, artificial silk and Chinese silk stand in the American market as enemies of Japanese silk. These things make the future prospects of Japan's raw silk trade not quite favourable.

On the other hand, America's export trade with Japan is well established for raw cotton, timber, iron and machinery (including parts thereof) which America principally supplies to Japan are all Japanese daily necessaries and cannot be expected to fall off in demand here hereafter, if indeed they do not increase more and more. Industrial products, which take up 30 per cent. of the goods from America, may be prevented, however, by developing their manufacture in Japan. Their importation should be checked in part, while our utmost exertions are made for maintaining the present superior position of our export trade in raw silk, silk goods, teas, potteries and curios, which must be the basis of prosperity of our trade with that country.

Since the war, American industry has made conspicuous development and its overwhelming power has been fast gaining in strength in the Orient. It is necessary for us to prepare to meet an economic war with that country. For this, we cannot simply rely on a protective tariff policy, which is liable to be accompanied by retaliatory tariff in America and an advance in commodities in Japan. We must return to our fundamental question and must re-adjust our public and private finances and economics so as to reduce the cost of production more and more, besides which the various transport, monetary and taxation questions should be solved promptly. For this, there are some means proposed and desired by the parties concerned for a long time, and they should be put in practice.

The Department of Agriculture and Commerce has recently been divided into two departments, the Department of Agriculture and Forestry and the Department of Commerce and Industry. These two departments correspond to the Army and Naval Departments. The latter's exhaustive study of armaments and timely measures adopted are well recognized by the public. Are the former two departments, which are responsible for peaceful war, as studious and resourceful as the latter two departments? Japan has never been defeated by an enemy in war but she

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is being ruined economically. The paper urges the awakening of the nation to the necessity of making the establishment of the two new departments worthy of the object.

A New Tariff Policy to be Adopted. — The Government has recently appointed a new tariff revision preparatory commission to complete the work of the commission urgently. The *Chugai Shogyo* has taken this occasion to urge the attention of the nation to this question which will affect seriously the national life.

At the beginning of the Meiji era, Japan adopted a free trade policy, but upon the treaty revision after the Japan-China War, the Government inclined towards a protective policy. This inclination has been more and more pronounced of late. A certain political party is advocating a protective policy and the Department of Commerce and Industry is apparently supporting it. When the question is taken into serious consideration as a national problem, however, it is easily found that it cannot be decided hastily whether to adopt a revenue policy or a protective policy.

In the existing economic organization, free competition must be a basis of industrial economy. The protective policy is to protect and encourage the national industry pro forma, but actually, it protects the comparatively few capitalists of the protected industries. It is therefore against the fundamental principle of the existing economic industry. The present national industry is compelled, however, to compete internationally against other nations, and from this viewpoint, there is reason to recognize protective policy. Protective tariff may be adopted for protecting some specific industries in order to strengthen the foundation of the national economy and to insure the security of the national industry in case of emergency. Anyhow, a protective policy is advisable theoretically and practically as an expedient to foster industries, which promise to develop sufficiently. Everybody may admit that the creation or the raising of import tariff necessarily brings up commodities. In the case of revenue tariff, the additional burden of the nation will not be meaningless, for the national revenue increases and the increased revenue is spent as administrative expenditure. In the case of protective tariff, however, it will benefit the capitalists of the protected industries by an advance in commodities or more than that, while the national revenue does not so increase or decrease. Moreover, the protective policy is permanent in most cases and increases more and more. The additional national burden imposed by it will, therefore, not be mitigated, and although the facts that the protected industries are successful and a part of the nation can maintain their livelihood by engaging in the industries and other economic developments connected with it are taken into account, it would seem to be very hard to judge its advantages and disadvantages.

We are not absolutely opposed to protective tariff, says the paper in conclusion, but oppose adopting a protective policy indiscriminately under the fine name of industrial protection, for such blind protective policy will not only threaten the stability of the national life but will bring in political corruption.

Anti-Japanism and Means to Improve Japanese Enterprises in China.—The anti-foreign agitation in Shanghai has taken the form of a general strike and boycott of an anti-foreign

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nature, and this anti-Imperialistic economic struggle is fast spreading in all directions of the country. This event has taught the powers the necessity to reconsider their Chinese policies, and above all, Japan is so urged, as she is most closely connected with it, argues the *Oriental Economist* in its editorial on June 13th.

The event originated in a strike in a Japanese spinning mill, but the fundamental and strongest reason underlying it was the conscious or unconscious antagonism of the Chinese against the partial treatment of them by the powers, politically, economically and racially. This may be seen from the recent developments. No policy can be successful towards China, if due regard is not given to this fundamental point. Even assuming that the Japanese spinning mills and other business enterprises improve materially their labour conditions by their superior technical and administrative ability and their better treatment of the workmen, the paper does not think that a similar strike or an anti-Japanese agitation can be avoided, so long as the present unequal treaties remain in operation. On the contrary, the growing business prosperity of the Japanese in China will only excite the Chinese anti-Imperialistic antagonism, for the Chinese will misconstrue that prosperity to be because of the advantageous position held by the Japanese over them, which has been obtained by the unequal treaty and not by technical and administrative superiority. This misconception lies at the root of the present anti-Imperialistic agitation in China.

For Japan's future industrial development, we must exert ourselves to create the impression among the Chinese, as a prior question, that they are competing industrially with the Japanese in China on an equal footing. When so impressed, the Chinese are sure to welcome Japanese industrial development in their country.

Nothing is more urgent for us, therefore, than to revise the present unequal treaty with China in order to develop our business enterprises there, in the opinion of the paper, which notes with regret that our businessmen and others interested in China advocate an oppressive policy towards that country by Japan. These persons simply wish to protect their own business interests, sacrificing Japan's general industrial development there.

Economically, Japan must necessarily secure a footing of equal opportunity in the world or at least in the Orient and the South Sea countries, in order to procure there her industrial raw materials and to extend oversea markets for her products. Japan's superior rights in China, the maintenance of which seems to be nearly impossible now, are too unimportant to break down the existing economic deadlock. Japan has no reason whatever to oppose the Chinese anti-Imperialistic agitation, which is similar to the European and American movements for opening the colonies or semi-colonies, and which Japan may help in order to make it successful. For this, Japan will have to give up herself her superior position in China and her specific position in Korea, for she will gain by it more than losing. She will also profit by relinquishing her policy against the above Chinese agitation and by supporting it. This makes it also necessary for her to at once set to work to improve the unequal treaty with China, which is the only effective way of eradicating the anti-Japanese movements in China.

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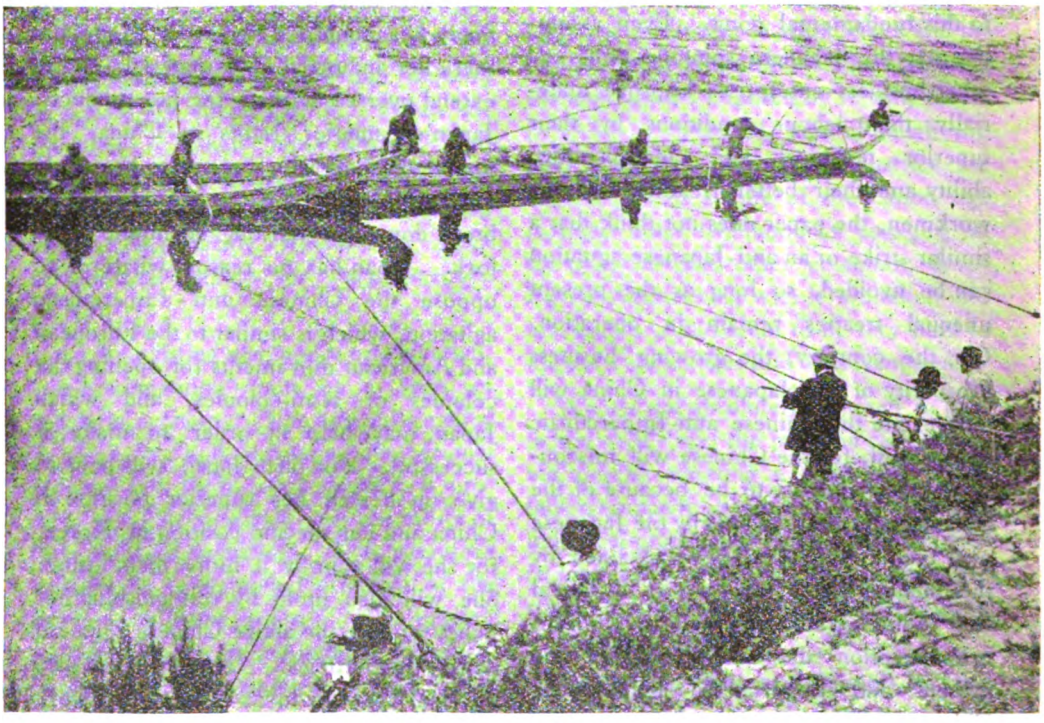
Chinese anti-Japanism has been intensified by an old feeling among the Chinese against the Japanese treatment of the Chinese with contempt and oppression as an inferior nation. This Japanese conduct towards the Chinese is essentially an outcome of extraterritoriality and extremely unequal superiority they hold over the Chinese. No close political and economic relationship can be hoped for between the two countries, unless this discriminating attitude of the Japanese towards the Chinese is removed. For this, nothing will be more effective than to abolish the present unequal treaty with China.

Some Japanese businessmen will say how can they take interest in Chinese enterprises without a feeling of uneasiness, unless the security of their business there is guaranteed by extraterritoriality, etc. Nothing is more important for them than the maintenance of peace, but this may be better left to the Chinese authorities than to do it under extraterritoriality, from the viewpoint of a sentimental question.

Finally, the paper thinks it necessary to do our best to help in the better treatment of Chinese labourers, for the fact that the latter contend with the present extraordinary low wages is one of the chief causes of our economic deadlock and the treatment of Chinese labourers as well as we can is a way to relieve our industry.



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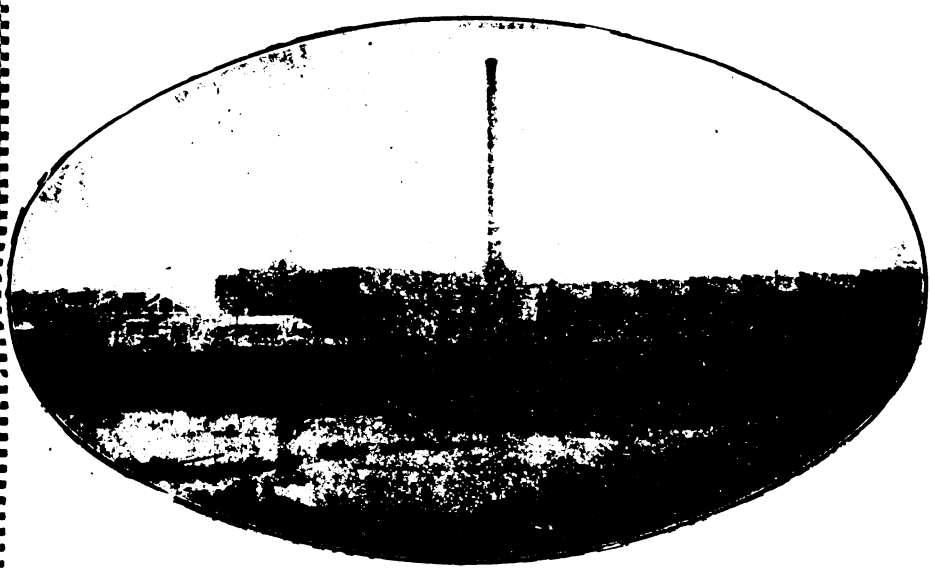

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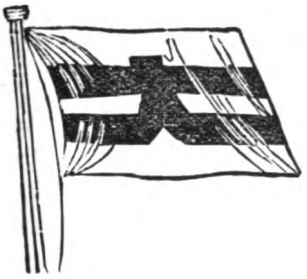

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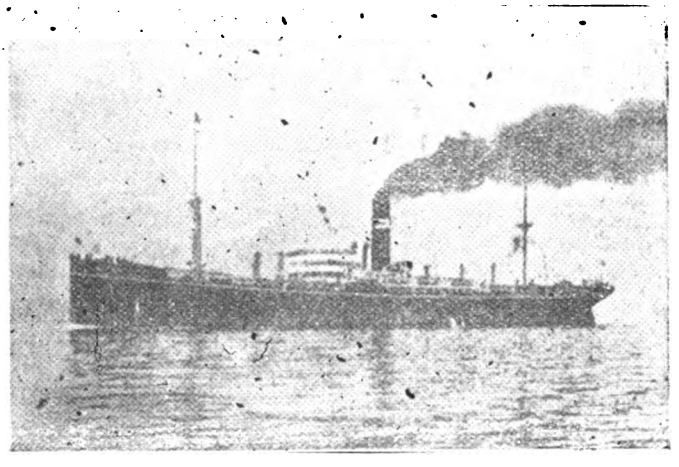

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